COMMUNITY PLANNING ASSOCIATION OF CANADA

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REVUE CANADIENNE D'URBANISME

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Editor: ERIC BEECROFT

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Not "a planner's dream" but "a more orderly jungle" is our author's description of the conditions which we might hope for as a result of the Paquette Commission's recommendations. Whether these recommendations are adopted or not, it seems certain that the basic problems arising from a multiplicity of local authorities will remain a grave obstacle to the welfare and progress of Canada's biggest Metropolis.

Mr. Mallory, a graduate of New Brunswick, Edinburgh and Dalhousie Universities, is Associate Professor of Political Science at McGill University. He is also a member of McGill's Committee on Community Planning whose curriculum has already contributed impressively to the training of a Canadian planning profession.

MONTREAL: PROBLEM METROPOLIS

by J. R. Mallory

MANY physicians have prescribed for the ailments of Montreal. In recent years its finances and system of government have provoked the intervention of the provincial legislature; lengthy expert reports have been made on its mass transportation and traffic problems; and its police administration has been subjected to a full-scale judicial inquiry. The latest diagnostic inquest is the report of *The Commission for the Study of Metropolitan Problems of Montreal*, generally known by the name of its chairman as the *Paquette Commission.*[1] Students of metropolitan government may be assured that the stream of such reports is unlikely to dry up. And with cause, for Montreal is an extraordinarily difficult city to govern.

Within it the two major races in Canada, aloof in their two solitudes, must somehow live together. Into it has poured for over a century a steady stream of immigrants about to begin the hard study of the rules of social life in the New World. Add to this the endless friction of the rich and poor, and the political ingredients are complete. In some fashion all these must rub along together in a viable political compromise. Such political compromises are invariably financially costly.

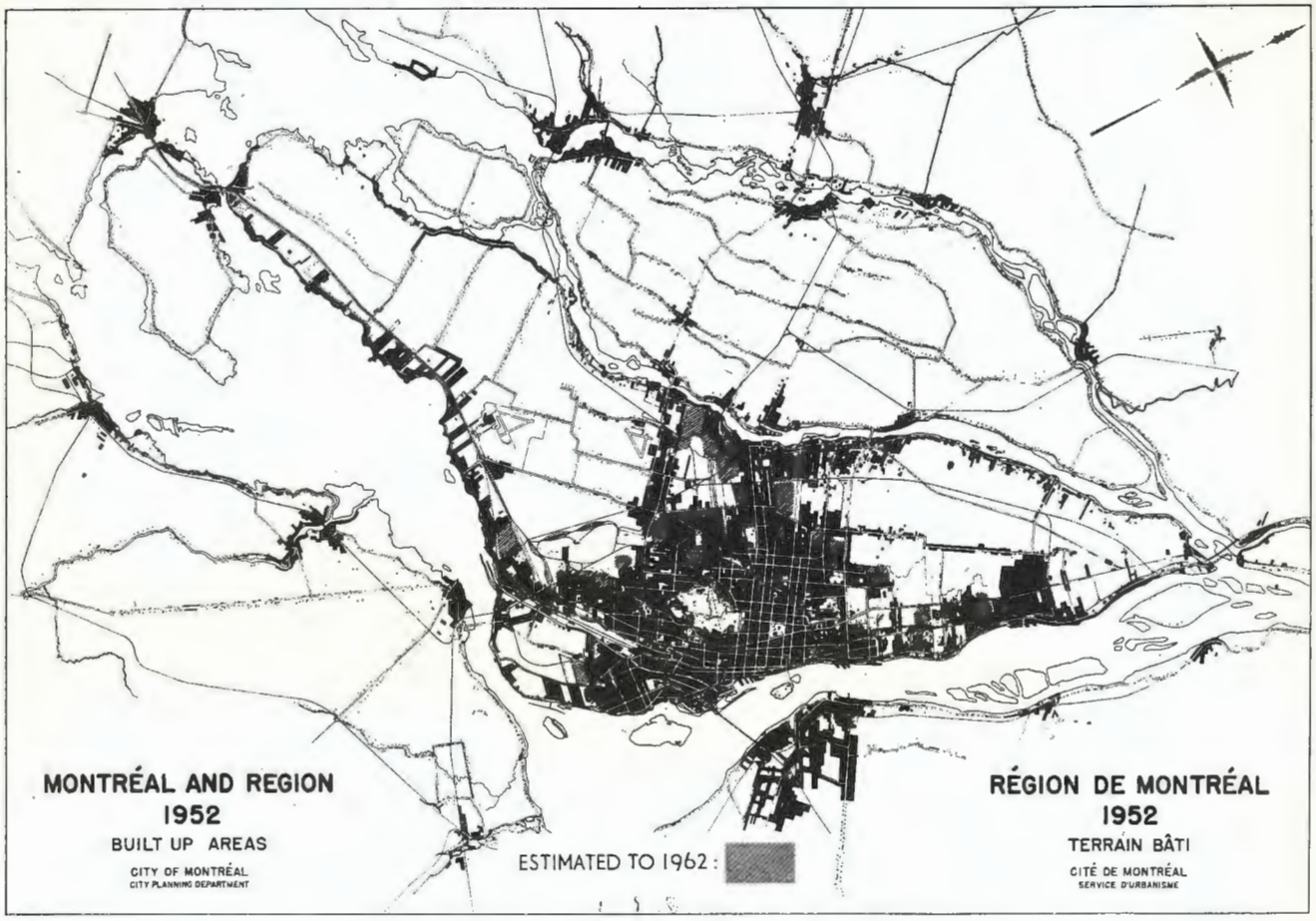
Although the island of Montreal is a striking site for a large city, with many natural advantages of location, its geography creates a number of expensive and intractable problems for the provision of essential urban services. The trio of mountains which dominate the island effectively block central traffic arteries in all directions, while a sub-soil of solid rock must be blasted away whenever water and sewer mains, electric cables, or railway lines need to be laid underground. On the surface of the ground four months of severe winter bring an annual snowfall of more than one hundred inches, requiring a vast herd of snow blowers, loaders, graders, sanders, sweepers, and plows to keep the streets open. A year of moderate snowfall will cost the City of Montreal alone over four million dollars; a bad year may cost more than twice as much.

The fact that Montreal is on an island surrounded by rivers means that its approaches by road and rail require a number of bridges along the sprawling river fronts on its periphery. In addition the turbulent Lachine rapids have necessitated a canal which cuts through the flat lands on the south of the island so that railways and roads must thread over and under its entire length. The metropolitan conurbation has spilled over northwards to to Ile Jésus and across to the South Shore of the St. Lawrence so that bridges (and probably ultimately tunnels) are now part of the interior communications of greater Montreal. The construction of the St. Lawrence Seaway, which cuts through the river frontage of the South Shore, will necessitate further large-scale revision of road and bridge approaches in that direction.

THE SPRAWLING METROPOLIS

In the twentieth century all great cities have fallen victims to middle-aged spread. The enormous growth of light industries, service industries, and the distributive trades, combined with the revolution in transportation brought about by the electric motor and the internal

[1]The Commission, consisting of Chief Judge Roland Paquette, the Mayor and fourteen City Councillors from Montreal, and six representatives from suburban municipalities, was authorized by provincial statute and set up by municipal by-law in 1952. The Commission carried on most of its investigation through four technical committees. Figures given below are from The Report of the Commission.



combustion engine, have greatly increased the effective area of urban concentration. Old cities, where the high land values at the centre have packed commercial and industrial buildings along narrow streets, have found themselves slowly strangling in their own traffic. All through the working day thick clotted streams of traffic inch their way at about six miles an hour through dark and narrow streets. A small fire or a collision can bring the circulatory system of the city to a standstill over as much as a square mile. Traffic engineers arrange complicated patterns of one-way streets, public open space is converted not into parks but into parking lots, streets are widened and straightened (at enormous cost in expropriations), expressways and tunnels are constructed to carry the excess traffic. But the mounting numbers of private and commercial vehicles increase faster than the plans can be drawn up. To this Malthusian dilemma there seems to be no answer, while urban tax rates rise to pay for more and more streets; downtown properties depreciate in value as they become inaccessible to employees and customers alike.

From this paralyzing disease of the modern great city, Montreal has not escaped. In 1871 there were 107,225 people living in the City of Montreal. In 1951 the census counted 1,021,520. To provide more space for its growing population, Montreal annexed surrounding land. In the period of nearly 35 years between 1883 and 1919, the physical area of the city grew from 6,300 to 32,000 acres. But in the next 35 years only a handful of acres were added to the area of the city. In the meantime rapid growth and development has taken place in the surrounding suburban municipalities, so that in some of them there is no more vacant land to develop.

The anticipated growth of the population of the Island reveals an ominous pattern. Within twenty-five years it is anticipated that it will rise from 1,320,232 to 2,000,000. Something like 25,000 persons per year will have to be housed and provided with the services of a modern community. *One-half of the expected increase will be in the suburban municipalities.* Already nearly one-quarter of the people on Montreal Island live outside the boundaries of the City of Montreal. By 1980 the number of this suburban group will have doubled.

It appears that the City of Montreal has reached the limit of its physical expansion. The series of annexations came to a stop in 1919 because "these annexations involved the taking over of municipal services and facilities which were below the standards prevailing in Montreal.

The cost of providing these annexed areas with services and facilities comparable to those of Montreal imposed a heavy financial burden on Montreal taxpayers. After 1919, a deliberate policy was pursued of 'no annexation without compensating advantages'." (*Report*, page 53). The consequence is that, since 1919, the City of Montreal has been surrounded by growing urban municipalities. There are now thirty-six different municipalities on the Island of Montreal, varying greatly among themselves in size, population, and taxable capacity. "No single method of property assessment is followed by any two of the 36 separate municipalities on the Island of Montreal" (*Report*, page 37). The revenue from municipal property taxes cannot be increased in the same proportion as the costs of municipal services (which have been inflated by steep rises in wages, supplies, and materials), and the residential suburbs with moderate cost residential property can provide little more than a minimum of basic local services.

WANTED: METROPOLITAN INTEGRATION

There are two immediate problems. The suburban municipalities, many of them small and chiefly residential, with the real property tax as their only major source of revenue, must somehow finance expensive capital works which their residents demand—streets, sidewalks, sewers, and water mains. At the same time urban growth on this scale, unplanned and burgeoning, throws new and unexpected strains on such existing facilities as streets and water and sewer systems. These facilities must be planned and they must be paid for. Already the financial resources of the Island's municipalities are heavily committed. In 1951 they spent some $91 million, of which nearly $35 millions came from local property taxation. Their total debenture debt in the same year exceeded $216 million, representing annual carrying charges of almost 25% of their total revenues.

It is not merely a question of financing, at ever-increasing cost, the present level of municipal services. It would be imprudent not to anticipate that the public will expect more, rather than less, from their local governments in the future. The time is not far off when low-rent housing, as well as other services no less expensive, will be required. These are not facilities which can fairly be attributed to individual municipalities, for they affect the whole metropolitan area.

The problem of providing such services would have been serious, though less complicated, if Montreal had taken a less narrowly calculating view of annexations. As things are, thirty-six assorted local authorities on the Island must come to some common solution together. But it is well-known that what is everybody's business is nobody's business. Before the main problem can be tackled, there is the preliminary question of what sort of machinery can be devised to co-ordinate all the interested parties.

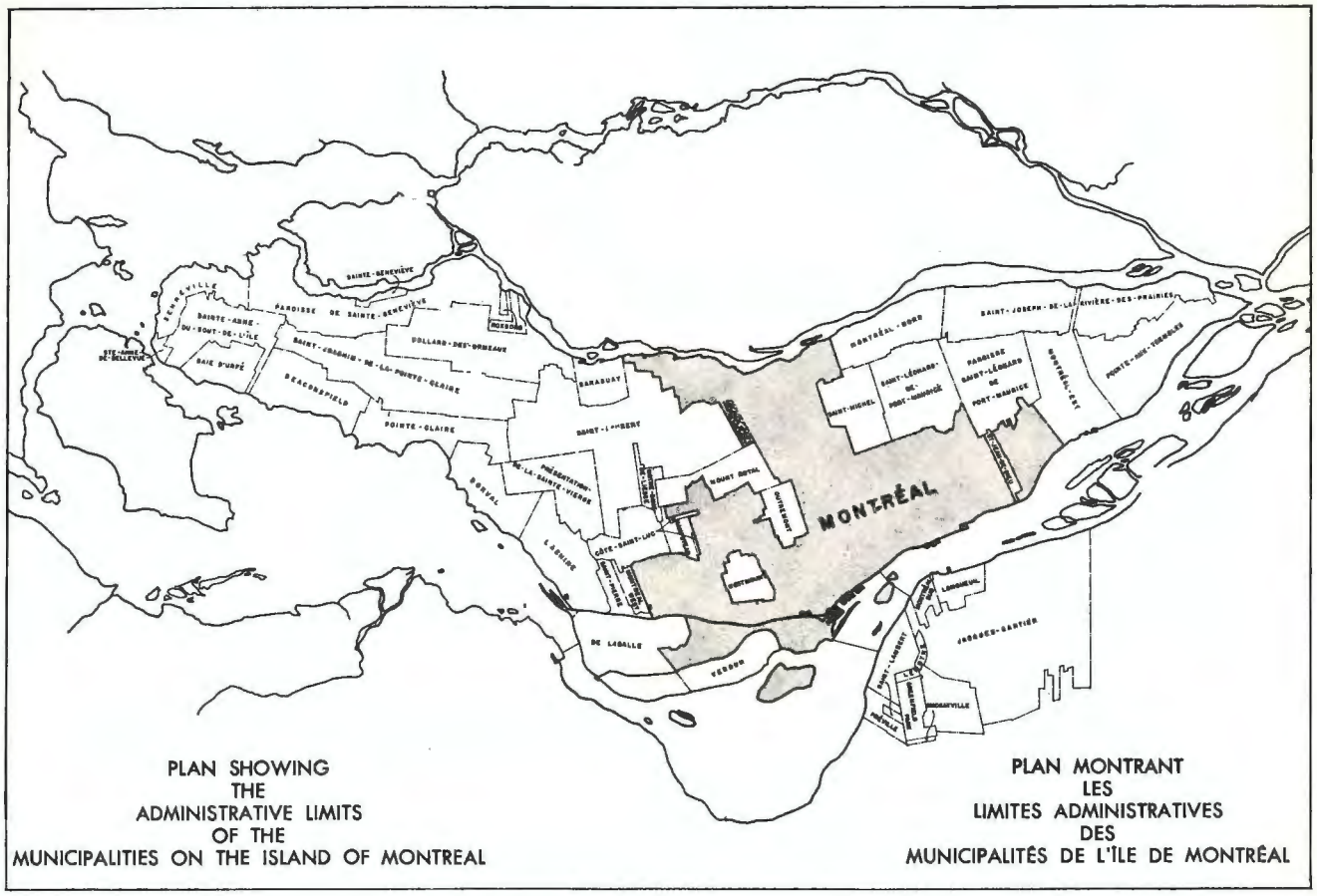
Even if there were not doubts as to how big local governments ought to be, the history and geography of Montreal Island would make it inevitable that existing municipalities should wish to retain their essential autonomy. Only the pressure of overwhelming circumstances has brought a very modest degree of centralized metropolitan machinery. The only agencies with jurisdiction over all or part of the metropolitan area are the Montreal Metropolitan Commission, the Montreal Transportation Commission, and the Protestant and Catholic School authorities.

The only one of these which is potentially and, to a very limited extent, actually an agency of metropolitan government is the Montreal Metropolitan Commission. The Metropolitan Commission, composed of representatives of the City of Montreal and the suburban municipalities, has under its charter the power to review municipal borrowing, which must be approved by the Commission, and the power to administer defaulting municipalities. The municipal sales tax is levied throughout its territory and is shared within the area by the various municipalities in proportion to population. The only specific metropolitan responsibility which is entrusted to the Metropolitan Commission is the construction of the new Metropolitan Boulevard, the cost of which will be borne by all municipalities on the island in proportion to the assessable value of their taxable property.

In addition to this very modest degree of metropolitan government the City of Montreal provides water supply for a number of adjoining municipalities and collector sewer facilities on a contractual basis for certain of its neighbours. The Montreal Fire Department is also available to suburban municipalities on a use fee basis. Certain other municipal services of the City of Montreal, such as its Food Inspection Service, its Economic and Tourist Development Bureau, and the City Planning Department, directly benefit the whole metropolitan area.

Generally speaking, however, there is no rational relationship of form, area, or function in the operation of services related to the common benefit of the whole metropolitan area. Even the smaller area of Montreal Island has the most meagre machinery for common action. If the future of Montreal and its environs were perfectly static this would be bad enough. But the next twenty or thirty years will require more planning, more services, and probably greater capital outlays by municipal authorities than any previous period. It may be too late to construct a rational metropolitan order for Montreal, but it is not too late to avoid the most obvious disasters of unplanned growth. *The Commission for the Study of Metropolitan Problems* was set up to suggest a feasible path of reform.

An Act of the Quebec Legislature (assented to January 23, 1952) authorized the City of Montreal to create



PLAN SHOWING
THE
ADMINISTRATIVE LIMITS
OF THE
MUNICIPALITIES ON THE ISLAND OF MONTREAL

PLAN MONTRANT
LES
LIMITES ADMINISTRATIVES
DES
MUNICIPALITÉS DE L'ÎLE DE MONTRÉAL

the Commission to study metropolitan problems. The attention of the Commission was directed particularly to the fact that the Island of Montreal forms an economic and geographical whole, but is governed by different and independent administrative systems, and that it is a "practical impossibility, for certain of them, to organize adequately on a local basis various essential public services or those of a metropolitan nature" and that there is an "unequal distribution and, in certain cases, the complete absence of distribution of the costs of services, works and improvements for the benefit of all". The attention of the Commission was further directed to the problem of regulating taxi transportation (taxis generally can pick up passengers only in the municipality in which they are licensed), and generally to "the administrative relations between these various cities and towns and municipal corporations". The Commission was set up by the City on November 10, 1952, and its life was extended from time to time until the final report was presented on January 15, 1955.

PAQUETTE COMMISSION RECOMMENDATIONS

In general the Commission took for granted that the existing pattern of municipalities should be left as it is. It recommended the setting up of a co-ordinating mechanism to provide for an equitable distribution of benefits and burdens resulting from services of an intermunicipal character, and to administer such matters of common concern as the municipal sales tax, intermunicipal services, urban planning and economic and tourist development, main traffic arteries, the closing hours of stores and metropolitan taxi permits (where appropriate). In summary, it made the following recommendations:

(1) The autonomy of municipalities should be safeguarded by leaving to each of them the administration of its own affairs.

(2) The creation of an organism of conciliation and arbitration consisting of 29 members, 14 appointed by the suburban municipalities and 14 by the City of Montreal, and 1 by the Provincial Government. This organism should have an Executive Committee of 7 members, 3 from the suburban municipalities and 3 from the City of Montreal, with the President of the organism to be *ipso facto* Chairman of the Executive Committee.

(3) The organism should be responsible for hearing and discussing cases of services recognized as intermunicipal; for establishing the proportional utility of such services for each municipality and distributing revenues and costs according to the same proportion; for examining requests for annexations; for taking general measures for

the purpose of urban planning and tourist and economic development; for administering the sales tax; for applying by-laws relating to store-closing in the whole metropolitan area; for determining (where appropriate) to establish a metropolitan taxi permit and taxi fares; and for executing its decisions with the application of sanctions if necessary.

(4) The organism should be responsible for the uniform assessment of all properties within the metropolitan area, and for this purpose to have a chief assessor with the staff and means to ensure that uniform standards are observed.

(5) The jurisdiction of the organism should apply to the whole Island of Montreal, and if the organism agrees, its jurisdiction should be extended to any municipality in the surrounding territory which may request to be included.

(6) The organism should administer the following intermunicipal services: collector sewers and purification plants; the system of water intake, reservoirs and distribution (from water intake to the limits of the municipalities served); main traffic arteries and their equipment (Metropolitan Boulevard, Expressway, etc.); bridges and tunnels connecting the Island with the mainland, standards for fire prevention and for fire services in general and fire services and stations in certain cases; clinics, nursing and food inspection; intermunicipal parks; the central wholesale market and other markets in certain cases; master plan including main arteries system; the general control of land use; control of major developments and intermunicipal facilities; regulations of nuisances (quarries, smoke, water pollution, etc.); economic and tourist development; municipal participation in civil defence; mass transportation; specific cases of off-street parking connected with intermunicipal activities; certain public buildings according to their character and purposes; certain public utilities according to their character and purposes; and all other services and facilities considered as intermunicipal by agreement between the municipalities or by virtue of a decision of the co-ordinating organism.

The result is obviously not a planner's dream of a metropolitan authority. The composition of the Commission (made up of representatives of existing municipalities) made it inevitable that the present jungle of local authorities should remain. But it will be a more orderly jungle—a more viable structure to bear the costs and responsibilities of anticipated growth. The present structure is now too deeply ingrained to be altered fundamentally. It is not a logical or an efficient structure, but it exists. Its diversity recognizes the underlying variety of the urban life of Montreal.

How likely is it that the Paquette recommendations will be accepted? No one can tell. It is already clear what one of the obstacles will be. The suburban municipalities will not welcome surrendering part of their autonomy to a central authority. To some extent their development will pass from their own control to the new agency. Their citizens will have to bear a greater share of the burdens of future development and of the costs of common services. The last-minute amendment to the Paquette report which recommended a new and definite metropolitan authority (rather than the existing Metropolitan Commission, which the earlier draft had implied) reveals suburban fears of a metropolitan leviathan. For the Metropolitan Commission has only six suburban representatives against eight for the City of Montreal, and the Paquette Commission recommended larger and equal representation—fourteen from the City of Montreal and fourteen from the remaining municipalities (a number large enough to ensure direct representation of all but the smallest of the suburbs on the metropolitan authority). Apparently this concession was sufficient to enable the suburban representatives to agree to the recommendation that the new metropolitan organism should have direct administrative as well as arbitral authority over the enumerated intermunicipal services.

It is also significant that the only dissenting voice on the Paquette Commission was from the representative of the City of Lachine, and that Lachine continues to be opposed to the report as a whole. Lachine is one of the oldest of the suburban municipalities, and opinion there evidently is that the burden of metropolitan growth will result in increased financial burdens without many compensating benefits. Other suburban municipalities may not take such an extreme view, but it is likely that all of them will have some reservations about details of the Paquette proposals.

It has been reported that the mayors of the fourteen suburban municipalities represented on the Commission are now holding regular meetings to study the implications of the Report.[2] There may be difficulties about the proposed enumeration of intermunicipal services, and also about an acceptable formula for uniform assessment. The uniform application of the Protestant school tax will not please all of the municipalities. These and other difficulties must be overcome if the new authority is to come into being.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT—FOR WHAT?

The Paquette Commission was silent on the more fundamental problems of effective municipal government in the Montreal area. They were, of course, beyond its terms of reference. But the day must come when the whole form and scope of local government is reconsidered in relation to its purposes. Local government is supposed to deal with those things nearest to the everyday life of the citizen. It is also supposed to give, as widely as possible, some effective and positive share of political responsibility to as large a number of citizens as possible in a world increasingly remote and impersonal from the individual citizen. Unfortunately local govern-

[2]Montreal *Gazette*, February 21, 1955.

ments have also been required to administer expensive and complicated services, which are a severe strain on the amateur character of democratic local government.

The reform of municipal government in Canada has derived most of its impulse, perhaps inevitably, from the various movements for municipal reform in the United States. To the extent that in the nineteenth century American cities suffered from a doctrinaire devotion to the separation of powers and to the democratic dogma that all officials must be elected, the movement for strengthened civic administration and the short ballot was irrelevant to Canadian conditions. The consequence has been that the chief influence towards municipal reform in Canada has been the uncritical adoption of the commission form of government and the technique of the City Manager. These have upon occasion been useful innovations, but they have, when successful, achieved the limited objective of better civic administration and more prudent and more "businesslike" administration of urban finances. They have diverted attention from the more fundamental problem of participation and democratic control and often, it is to be feared, better administration has been achieved at the expense of municipal democracy.

This is not the way to achieve sound local government. Local government is desirable chiefly because it provides an outlet for the largest possible number of civic-minded citizens to participate in their government. The present responsibilities of municipal governments now outrun their financial resources and probably demand too much administrative skill and expertise from elected representatives. We may find within the next twenty years that, if we value the civic virtues which flow from local self-government, we may have to reconstruct municipal government on a smaller scale and with more limited functions. The Island of Montreal, besides the normal problems of a bi-cultural community, contains more people than live in the three Maritime Provinces. Its municipal organization poses—in these terms—a problem of almost unique difficulty. But it is a problem which must someday be faced.

Meanwhile we must take our metropolises as we find them. A federal type of metropolitan authority may have the administrative and financial strength to meet the physical problems of the future, even though the result is less of a city than a state. The Paquette recommendations will create an ungainly structure which will bear little resemblance to an ideal metropolitan authority. Professor K. B. Callard of McGill University, writing before the publication of the Paquette Report, argues that

> "To achieve lasting success, a plan for metropolitan reorganization would have to make a radical departure from the existing pattern. . . . To build a federal scheme of reorganization upon the pattern of the present local authorities would be most unwise. The new subordinate units would need to be comparable in size, in resources and in function. The elimination of many of the smaller municipalities and the dissection of the leviathan, would be essential."[3]

It is evident that the recommendations of the Paquette Commission commend themselves because they go as far as possible in reconciling what is desirable with what is expected to be politically acceptable. The vested opposition to any structural change in government is always great, and should never be under-estimated. The great virtue of the Paquette Commission is that it consisted of responsible municipal politicians, whose practical judgment and political leadership may well lead to the adoption of its recommendations.

[3]"Montreal and Toronto" in William A. Robson (ed.) *Great Cities of the World: their Government, Politics and Planning* (London, 1954), pp. 379-380.

To present British Columbia's contribution to our series of articles on small town planning in Canada, Mr. Ira M. Robinson undertook to describe the scope and procedure of a study now in progress at the University of British Columbia. His article, he believes, will raise more questions than it will answer; but it will show the kinds of information we need to determine how to conduct planning in small communities. Mr. Robinson is an Instructor and Research Associate in U.B.C.'s Graduate Program in Community and Regional Planning.

PLANNING FOR SMALL COMMUNITIES IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

by Ira M. Robinson

URBANIZATION has been a characteristic development wherever industry has grown. During the last decade, British Columbia's development has followed this trend. Its economy, formerly based on primary production, is being transformed rapidly into an economy founded on secondary industry. At the same time, its communities have been undergoing a transition from a rural to an urban character. Not only has there been an increase in the total urban population of British Columbia; the number of communities considered "urban" in 1951 far exceeds those in 1941.

RAPIDITY OF URBAN GROWTH

The planning problems faced by British Columbia's small communities stem largely from this factor of rapid urban growth. In the process of becoming urbanized, these rapidly-growing communities face new conditions and demands imposed by the requirements of an urban mode of living. What are these new conditions?

(1) Urban communities require a wider range and a higher standard of municipal services. Changing service needs stem from two sources: (a) higher population density, (b) increased demand for more "urban-type", higher quality amenities. Thus a community experiencing population growth usually must increase the miles of water mains, employ more administrative personnel, build more schools, and expand many other facilities. Frequently it finds that it also has to change from a voluntary fire-fighting scheme to an established fire department, from a septic tank arrangement to a modern sewage and waste-disposal system, from open drainage to storm water mains, from small acreage holdings to residential, urban-type lot subdivisions. It must also make qualitative changes in its institutions and in its physical plant and equipment. Finally, providing for these services requires a much higher level of municipal expenditure.

(2) Urban growth inevitably means an increased demand for more land, usually with specialized site requirements, for housing, industry, business and the other uses to which our land is put.

(3) Population growth creates the need for more housing accommodations, usually of a different quality than hitherto.

(4) Urban growth imposes heavier responsibilities on municipal government and municipal administration.

(5) The influx of new population usually increases the number, type and cost of health and welfare facilities required.

(6) Population growth creates the need for additional sources of employment in the service trades as well as in basic industries.

WHAT CHANGES COME WITH GROWTH?

How have these communities responded or accommodated to these changed urban requirements? What changes did they make in their physical, economic, financial and administrative structure as the result of urban growth? Are there certain critical factors which determine or influence when and how these adjustments to urban demands are made? (For example, is it population size, population density, wealth, economic development, or some other factor?) Finally, what ways and means were used to accommodate to these new pressures?

These are vital questions of concern to both the student and practitioner of planning. We do not, however, have the answers at this time. All we have for some cities are the results of urbanization *after* they have undergone the transition from a semi-rural or rural state.

We do not know what happens to communities *while* they are in the process of change to an urban mode of living. If we had this information for B.C.'s rapidly-growing communities we would know the nature of the changes which may be anticipated in communities undergoing transition from a predominantly rural to an urban status, and the types of administrative and legal controls needed to satisfy adequately these changing conditions. This information would add to our knowledge of the growth of cities and towns, and of the planning techniques required to guide the physical and economic growth of communities. It would also aid those local, provincial, and federal agencies responsible for the physical and economic development of our communities to direct the imminent changes attendant upon urbanization in accordance with the best interests of the citizens.

In this way, our B.C. and other Canadian communities might be able to avoid the pitfalls which befell most North American cities—traffic congestion, blight, inadequate housing, tax revenue impasse, and the other common dislocations of modern urban life. If the changes attendant upon urbanization can be anticipated and planned for, these communities should be able to make the rural to urban transition with a minimum of economic, physical and social waste.

Urban growth in many instances has resulted in unplanned and uncontrolled developments on the outskirts of the communities, especially in adjoining unorganized territories. This photograph looking across the Fraser River at the Village of Quesnel, shows some of the shacks and unhealthy conditions that have developed in the adjoining community of West Quesnel (in the foreground). West Quesnel has been declared a "regulated area" according to the Town Planning Act and thereby subject to certain guidance and control of the Provincial Government. Some of the bad conditions in West Quesnel have been eliminated, although, as this photograph shows, not completely so.

CHARACTERISTICS OF URBAN GROWTH IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

The first stage of our research project[1] at the University was an analysis of the 1941 and 1951 Census and other published materials with a view to describing, measuring and evaluating the nature and characteristics of urban growth in B.C. between 1941 and 1951. An attempt was made to determine the magnitude of urban growth as a whole, as well as by specific types of communities, in order to discover any similar patterns or major differences based on population size, legal status, economic base, and geographic location. This first stage analysis also served to point up the kinds of communities that might be selected for investigating the problems of urban growth in the second stage of the research project. Following is a brief description of our findings.

British Columbia has been the fastest growing province, percentage-wise, in Canada over the last three decades. In each of the census years, 1931, 1941 and 1951, B.C. grew at a rate that was about twice the Canadian average. A large part of the Province's population growth occurred during the last census decade, 1941-51. In this ten year period, its population increased by almost 43%. This represented about twice the rate of increase of the next highest provinces, Quebec and Ontario. This tremendous growth of population has raised British Columbia to third place among all Canadian provinces in size of population; in 1921 it was sixth.

Paralleling the Province's rapid growth in total population there has been a corresponding increase in the "urban" population. Using the 1951 Census definition of urban population as the measuring rod,[2] B.C.'s urban population increased in the 1941-51 period by 45%, the second highest rate of increase in all Canadian provinces. As a result of this increase, B.C. is now the second most urban province in Canada (with almost 70% of its population considered urban), outranked only by Ontario.

The increase in urban population has taken some very interesting and different forms throughout the Province. First there are many more communities today that can be considered "urban" than there were in 1941. Using the new definition, the number of "urban places" increased from 49 in 1941 to 62 in 1951.

[1] *Urbanization in British Columbia.* University of B.C., Vancouver, 1954.

[2] Prior to the 1951 Census, the population residing within the boundaries of incorporated cities, towns and villages, regardless of size, was classified as urban and the remainder as rural. In the 1951 Census, the definition was changed, with aggregate size of population and the relationship to metropolitan areas, rather than legal status, becoming the main criteria of urban-rural population. The urban population in 1951 includes all persons residing in cities, towns, and villages of 1,000 and over, whether incorporated or not, plus the population of all parts of metropolitan areas.

Urban growth has resulted, in most instances, in the outward expansion of the central business areas into the adjoining residential sections. The photograph shows some of the fringe area surrounding the business area of Kimberley.

Majority of new homes are owner-built. Many of them, such as this example from Prince George, are unfinished, the owner awaiting some extra cash to complete the job; in many instances these homes have remained in this unfinished state for several years.

Second, the proportionate increase in population of the "urban places" outside the Vancouver and Victoria Metropolitan Areas between 1941 and 1951 was greater than the increase in the population of the two major centres in this period. However, despite this, the relative position of the two metropolitan areas has not changed appreciably. In 1941, 82% of the urban population lived in the two metropolitan areas; in 1951 the proportion had decreased only slightly.

Third, despite its rapid population growth, B.C. remains essentially a province of small communities. At the time of the 1951 census, there were 35 cities, 28 district municipalities and 41 villages incorporated in the Province. Of the 63 cities and district municipalities, only a little less than a third have more than 10,000 persons and only Vancouver, Victoria and Burnaby have 50,000 population or over. Of the remaining two-thirds, 15 cities and 10 district municipalities actually have less than 3,000 population. The villages are overwhelmingly characterized by small populations. Only 2 of them have more than 3,000 persons.

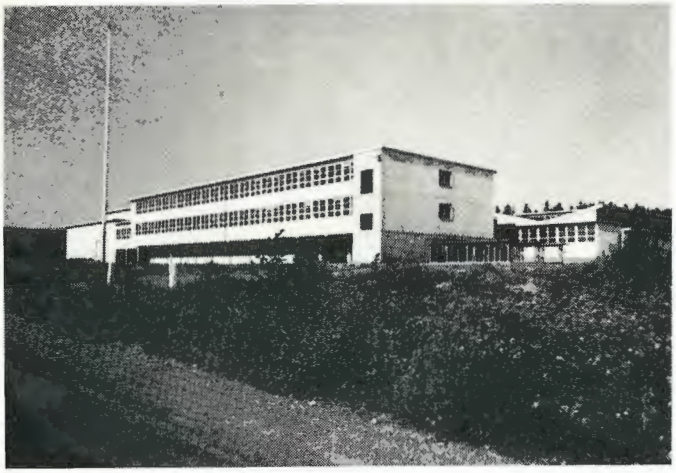
An equally clear indication of the small size of B.C. communities is evidenced in the fact that 8 of the incorporated cities and district municipalities cannot even qualify for the new Census definition of "urban": that is, they have less than 1,000 persons. In this sense, the village situation is even worse; about two-thirds of these communities fall outside the definition of "urban". Undoubtedly, the Province's unique physical features and localization of resources have to a large extent influenced the size of communities. Its rugged terrain, marked by a series of high parallel mountain ranges running roughly north and south, limits the area of potential settlement.

Fourth, in the 1941-51 period, the population of individual "urban places" outside the metropolitan areas in some cases doubled; in others it increased three-fold, four-fold, and even five-fold. Many of these communities in 1941 had less than 1,000 population.

Fifth, the most rapid rate of population growth in the 1941-51 period occurred mainly in two size groups: those with less than 6,000 persons and those with 10,000 to 20,000 persons.

Sixth, some of the largest absolute and relative increases in population during the ten-year decennial period occurred in district municipalities, several of them located outside the metropolitan areas. The district municipalities were originally intended to represent the rural municipalities in the Province. Indeed, until recently, this was the case. However, as the result of population growth in the 1941-51 period, many of these district municipalities (or portions of them) have undergone urban growth. This process has taken two forms: first, rapid growth has occurred in several district municipalities surrounding Vancouver and Victoria. These districts can no longer be considered "rural" in character but are integral parts of these metropolitan communities. The second form which urbanization in several district municipalities has taken has been the development of what we might refer to as "urban agglomerations", places in which the residents are not only "urbanites" in a sociological sense, but also in which they demand and require "urban" services.

A variation of this type of development, and one equally important, has been the growth of small "urban places" in unorganized areas on the outskirts of municipalities.



As the result of urban growth there has been (and still is) a great need for new schools to accommodate the swelling school population. Throughout B.C., new schools are being constructed at a rapid rate to meet this need. The photograph, taken in Port Alberni, indicates that we may be constructing new schools without consideration or at the sacrifice of the development of the school grounds for organized play and activities.

Urban growth creates the need for all kinds of additional community facilities: schools, parks, playgrounds, theatres, recreation halls, post offices, etc. All of these needs are pressing, but there are only limited funds available. Many of them therefore, are postponed or, as this photograph of an unfinished Arena in Quesnel shows, they are left in an uncompleted state.

Thus, from the above brief description of the salient characteristics of urban growth in B.C. since 1941, it is clear that urbanization has occurred in two major forms. First, there has been a continuing increase in population in the Vancouver and Victoria metropolitan areas; and second, outside the metropolitan areas, urban growth is occurring to a large extent in small, hitherto semi-rural or rural "hamlets" or "crossroad agglomerations" (in character if not by census definition) and in portions of rural district municipalities.

EFFECTS OF URBAN GROWTH ON SMALL COMMUNITIES

The second stage of the research project was concerned with investigating the changes brought about by urban growth in B.C.'s rapidly growing communities. The types of changes investigated fell into these general categories: (1) physical (land use and housing); (2) provision of services and facilities; (3) municipal administration and government; (4) municipal finance; (5) economic development. Some of the specific questions the project set out to answer include the following:

(1) Physical Planning Problems

(a) What has been the impact of urban growth on the land use pattern in these communities? For example, have the communities developed in an open, sprawled out manner, or compactly? Has density increased as these communities have grown, and if so, how much and where? How far has the area of developed land been extended? Has there been encroachment of one land use on to another, or has this type of development been controlled, and if so, how?

(b) What have been the effects of urban growth on the quantity and quality of housing provided? For example, how many new dwellings have been created in the period of rapid growth? What types? What means, if any, were used to increase the supply of housing? Has the quality of housing deteriorated during this period? Have the building, zoning and other regulations been altered to meet the new housing requirements? If so, in what ways, and what were the results?

(2) Financial Problems

(a) What have been the effects in general of rapid growth on the financial structure of these communities? Any trends or changes evident during the 1941-51 period? Is any particular factor or set of factors (population size, density, etc.) responsible for the trends or changes?

(b) What qualitative and quantitative changes took place in these communities with respect to the type of public services provided, and what were the effects of these changes on the communities' financial position? For example, did these communities have to enlarge their water and sewer mains, add personnel to their fire department, increase the number of schoolrooms and so on, and if so, how much? Did these communities have to change from open drainage to storm water mains, from septic tanks to a sewer system, from a voluntary fire fighting scheme to an established fire department? If so, when and why? What factor or factors seem to have been the critical determinants in these quantitative and qualitative changes in the provision of services (population size, density, wealth, health, etc.)?

(3) Administrative Problems

(a) How have these communities accommodated to the increasing responsibilities of municipal government? For

example, has the size of the political unit become larger through extensions or amalgamations, and if so, why? Has the size of the administrative unit become larger, say through inter-municipal cooperative arrangements or through *ad hoc* inter-municipal bodies? Has there been a change in the number and type of personnel hired, and in their training programs?

(b) How are decisions affecting planning matters made, and by whom?

(c) How have the rapidly growing unincorporated "urban places" accommodated to the requirements of urban growth? For example, how have the needs of the "urban" parts of rural district municipalities been met? Any conflicts between the urban and rural portions?

(d) What have been the effects of population growth in the unincorporated urban places in unorganized territory? For example, how have the needs of these places been met? Has growth imposed heavier responsibilities and burdens on the Provincial government to provide the required services? How satisfactory have been the results?

(4) Economic Problems

(a) What additional types and amounts of employment in secondary industries are generated by the introduction of some new basic industry (or industries)? Is there a certain pattern of development of the service industries as a community grows in population (or income)?

(b) What measures, if any, were taken to provide new employment opportunities for the new residents? Do the communities try to assess their economic future before making changes in their physical and financial structure? In particular, in those communities that are planning, is physical planning related to economic development?

Since it was not possible to investigate these problems in all of B.C.'s rapidly-growing communities, it was necessary to select a "sample" of case studies. Twelve communities were selected for intensive analysis, including field investigation. They varied as to population size, economic base, legal status, and geographic location. However, they all have two characteristics in common: they fulfill the new census definition of "urban", and their rate of population increase in the 1941-51 period was greater than the average of all "urban places" outside the two metropolitan areas (54%).

The selected communities were: Alberni and Port Alberni on Vancouver Island; City of Chilliwack, the urban portions of the Township of Chilliwack and Haney (an unincorporated urban place in the rural district municipality of Maple Ridge)—all of these outside but in fairly close proximity to the Vancouver Metropolitan Area; Kimberley in the Kootenays; Quesnel and the unincorporated regulated area of West Quesnel in central B.C.; and Prince George in northern B.C.

Armed with detailed field questionnaires, the researchers, including the writer and two graduate students in the UBC planning program, conducted field work in these selected communities during the summer of 1954. They recorded on the questionnaires, maps and notes data obtained from municipal and non-governmental records as well as their own impressions, and the opinions of municipal officials and departmental heads, representatives of local trade, business and civic organizations, and plain citizens. Parenthetically, it should be noted that, without exception, the reception and cooperation received in the communities by all persons contacted left nothing to be desired.

After completion of the analysis early this summer, our intention is to publish a handbook or manual describing and evaluating the changes which the 12 selected communities encountered as they grew in population.

PLANNING ASSISTANCE IN B.C.

One of the key questions the UBC project hopes to be able to throw some light on is the problem of planning organization and administration. Pending our conclusions in this respect, all I propose to do here is to describe briefly the present administrative set-up for planning small communities throughout the Province and note some of the discernible trends in this important area of planning.

B.C.'s small communities are receiving planning assistance in a variety of ways, and from different types of persons and agencies. These include:

(1) town planning commissions;
(2) private planning consultants;
(3) municipal planning departments;
(4) regional planning boards;
(5) the Provincial Department of Municipal Affairs.

Section 19 of the B.C. Town Planning Act authorizes the creation of a Town Planning Commission "to assist the Council in an advisory capacity" in carrying out various opportunities to plan provided by the Town Planning Act. By no means have all B.C. municipalities established Town Planning Commissions; some of the communities visited in the UBC research project had not established any Commission. The concern of those Town Planning Commissions which have been established range from little else but zoning to general consideration of overall planning, including in some cases actually making technical surveys preparatory to revising the municipality's existing plan.

Experience throughout B.C. thus far has shown that the Commission set-up for planning advice has some serious shortcomings. In the first place, far from considering broad planning policies, the Commissions in the main are obliged to consider a variety of technical problems, in most cases related to the zoning by-law. Although Commissions often include professional and other persons interested in and well acquainted with certain technical aspects of community planning, it is obviously difficult for private citizens, whose main vocation lies outside this field and who usually meet for only one evening per month, to decide on matters that require continuous and expert study. In saying this,

there is no intention to belittle or underestimate the good work that Commissions have accomplished under considerable handicaps.

The second major handicap of the Commission as an advisor on planning is that its activities and functions are not integrally related to the other administrative activities of local government. The Commission is not in a position to integrate the several processes of development by municipal and private enterprise. Further, there is no direct link between the Commission responsible for the preparation of the zoning by-law and the municipal government which administers the by-law. Consultation takes place, of course, but glaring weaknesses crop up from the absence of day-to-day contact between the originating and administering authorities.

Various methods are used to remedy the first limitation of the Commission set-up. First, the services of private planning consultants are used to conduct surveys, prepare comprehensive plans, and advise on various specific problems.

Second, in the lower mainland area, the Lower Mainland Regional Planning Board, in addition to its primary purpose of preparing an over-all plan for the future development of the region as a whole, provides part-time technical assistance to the municipalities within its jurisdiction if they so require it and satisfactory arrangements can be made.

Finally, the Provincial Department of Municipal Affairs, through its Regional Planning Division, provides planning assistance to all small municipalities who ask for it. This includes the preparation of draft zoning and building by-laws and suggestions for the development of road systems, recreational areas, and in some cases, subdivision plans. So far, over 45 municipalities have received planning assistance from the Division in one form or another.

In recent years, a new development has taken place in planning organization and administration designed to eliminate both of the major limitations of the Town Planning Commission. Many people have been arguing and still argue that the only way to make planning effective is to introduce it as an integral part of municipal government; therefore, municipalities should establish their own municipal planning departments. The planning department would have three main functions: first, to prepare the long-term Development or Master Plan; second, to advise Council on day-to-day planning matters; third, to administer the zoning by-law. Also as part of this new arrangement, it is suggested that some type of Technical Planning Board be established, comprised of the various department heads, and with the planning officer or director serving as its chairman. On many matters, the planning director would report to Council through the aegis of the Technical Planning Board. Two years ago, the City of Vancouver established a department of the kind just described. Since then, a few smaller municipalities, obviously taking the lead from "the big brother", followed suit. These include the District Municipalities of West Vancouver, North Vancouver and Burnaby—all located in the Vancouver Metropolitan Area.[3]

From all indications, other B.C. municipalities plan on instituting separate planning departments in the near future. Sufficient time has not elapsed to evaluate the success of this recent development. Two problems are immediately evident which will ultimately require some solution. The first is the future role of the Town Planning Commission in those communities that have established planning departments as an integral part of municipal administration. It has been suggested, in the City of Vancouver for example, that the Commission be disbanded and reconstituted as a separate group of citizens representing a wide variety of business, trade and citizens' organizations whose main function would be to consider the proposals advanced by the Technical Planning Board and make their own recommendations thereon. In addition, the Commission could also serve as a vehicle for "selling" planning and the planning proposals to the public.

The second problem is whether in the light of their size, B.C.'s small communities actually require a full-time, continuing planning department and if, in fact, they do, how it could be supported financially. It would appear that for those communities outside the metropolitan areas some type of assistance such as is now being given by the Provincial Department of Municipal Affairs and the Lower Mainland Regional Planning Board offers the best solution.

In summary, it can be said that planning methods and techniques, as they are being practiced throughout British Columbia, are only in a developing state, which is understandable in a Province that only recently emerged from its undeveloped, rural character and is rapidly becoming industrialized and urbanized. We have an unusual opportunity to avoid the mistakes of some of our brethren to the East and South and to create communities that are desirable, healthy and economically sound places in which to live, shop, work and play. To accomplish this objective, we are striving first to obtain all of the necessary information and knowledge about our communities, upon which to formulate sound and feasible recommendations for planning action. We hope and trust that it may also prove of some value to our sister provinces.

[3]See *Planning Administration* by G. Sutton Brown, and *Why We Hired a Planner* by W. N. McDonald, in the COMMUNITY PLANNING REVIEW, Volume IV, 1954. The case for placing all planning responsibility upon the elected municipal officials, advised by professional staff, is presented in *Planning Organization in Canada*, by A. H. Roberts, COMMUNITY PLANNING NEWS, No. 1, 1955.

A short review of the housing problem in the Toronto Metropolitan Area in the post-war period.

HOUSING IN METROPOLITAN TORONTO

by Murray V. Jones*

It was estimated by the Minister of Construction and Supply in 1946 that Canada should build 480,000 dwelling units by March of 1952—an average of 96,000 units per year. At no time in the country's history had more than 50,000 units been built in any year, while the average was 26,000 per year from 1929 to 1939. A further comparative factor is that in the period 1921-1939 the rate of home construction in Canada was 50,500 per million population; in the United States it was 75,000 and in Great Britain 83,000.

THE HOUSING DEFICIT

In terms of shortage, it was estimated in 1946 that there were 200,000 more family units than dwelling units.[1] Sixty per cent of these units were more than 25 years old. A great many of these were therefore ready for rehabilitation or replacement.

In the City of Toronto in 1947, 60% of all housing units contained more than one single family dwelling unit. This was possible because of the large size of the houses built in the earlier part of the century for an average family of more than five persons. By 1947 the average size of a Toronto family was 3.8 persons.

Between 1930 and 1945, 27,815 dwelling units were built in the 12 suburban municipalities in Metropolitan Toronto to house an increased population of 103,320. In other words, one dwelling unit was built for each additional 3.75 persons. However, during the same period the city's population increased by 60,278 while only 8,052 new dwelling units were built, or one unit for each 7.84 persons.

At the end of the war and with the return of the men in the armed services Metropolitan Toronto was short 18,000 dwelling units.[2] In 1947, it was estimated that the then existing shortage, combined with the needs of population growth, would mean that 52,000 new dwelling units would be needed by the end of 1956.[2]

THE DEFICIT HAS GROWN

Now, what is the picture for 1953, the latest year for which statistics are available? Based on an ideal of one dwelling unit per family, Metropolitan Toronto was short 29,181 dwelling units in June, 1951. (See Table 1) At the end of 1953, it is estimated that the population of Metropolitan Toronto was 1,211,250. By dividing the total population by the number of families for the year 1951, an overall family size of 3.69 is obtained. Assuming that this ratio did not change appreciably by 1953, it is found that by dividing the 1953 population by 3.69 there were 328,252 families at the end of 1953. According to the Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation, there were 25,893 dwelling units completed from June 1, 1951 to the end of 1953. Add to these the number of occupied dwellings given by the 1951 census (273,200) and we arrive at a total of 299,093 dwelling units at the end of 1953. Mathematically, then, there was a shortage of 29,159 dwelling units at the end of 1953.

TABLE 1.
NUMBER OF FAMILIES AND DWELLING UNITS IN METROPOLITAN TORONTO

	June 1951 (Census)	*1953 (estimate)*
No. of families	302,381	328,252
No. of dwelling units	273,200	299,093
Shortage	29,181	29,159

It is now clear that the 1947 estimate that 52,000 units were needed in the following ten year period was quite low. Indeed, we have a greater shortage now than at that time.

HOW MANY CAN BUY A SINGLE-FAMILY HOUSE OR PAY RENT?

So much for the general statistics showing the housing shortage. There are even more important specific considerations, such as the type of housing and costs, which need attention.

It has always seemed to me that it is necessary, in order to satisfy the housing demand, to relate cost to income. This basic adjustment, I suggest, has never

[1]Humphrey Carver: *Housing for Toronto—1947*, page 4.
[2]*ibid*, page 19.
*Mr. Jones is Director of Planning and Secretary-Treasurer of The Metropolitan Toronto Planning Board.

been made in large industrial cities, at least not by private capital alone. The average annual wages and salaries paid in a composite of Metropolitan Toronto's 7 most important industries in 1950 was $2,417.48, while the minimum qualifying income for an N.H.A. house on an average mortgage loan was $2,756.45. The same ratio is true of subsequent years. In 1953, the ratio was $3,115.84 to $3,396.13.

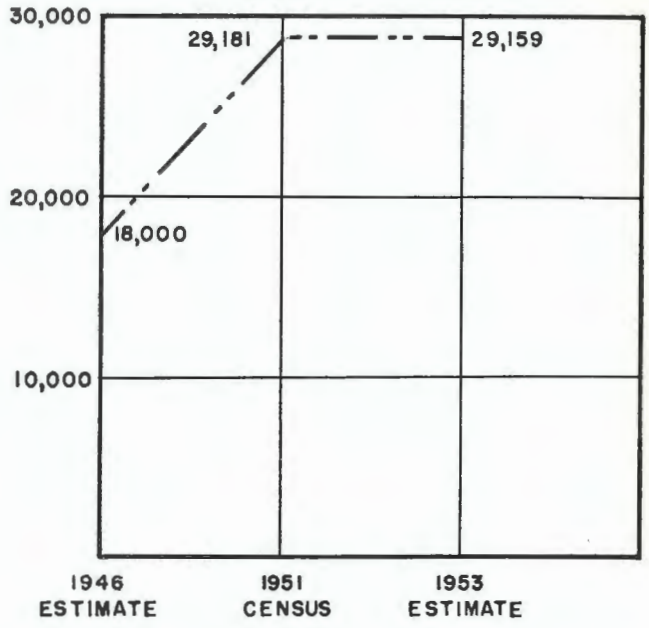
I am not suggesting any give-away programs; but surely here is one of the basic obstacles that must be overcome in the single-family house field.

This problem is illustrated in the Metropolitan Toronto today in new housing areas such as Don Mills. This community, while physically well planned, does not house a large section of the workers whose employment is within the development, since the income from that employment is not as high as the qualifying income for mortgage loans. I suggest that there are 30,000 more workers living in Scarborough Township than there are jobs in that Township. Scarborough is one of the few areas in Metropolitan Toronto where construction is concentrated on low-cost houses.

If an effective demand cannot be created in the home purchase field, then what about rentals? One does not have to do much research to answer this question. The classified ads in any local newspaper show that on the average a one-bedroom apartment has an asking price of at least $90 a month which, under N.H.A. rules of 23% of income for rentals, means a required annual wage of $4,700. A large percentage of our working force, therefore, does not qualify.

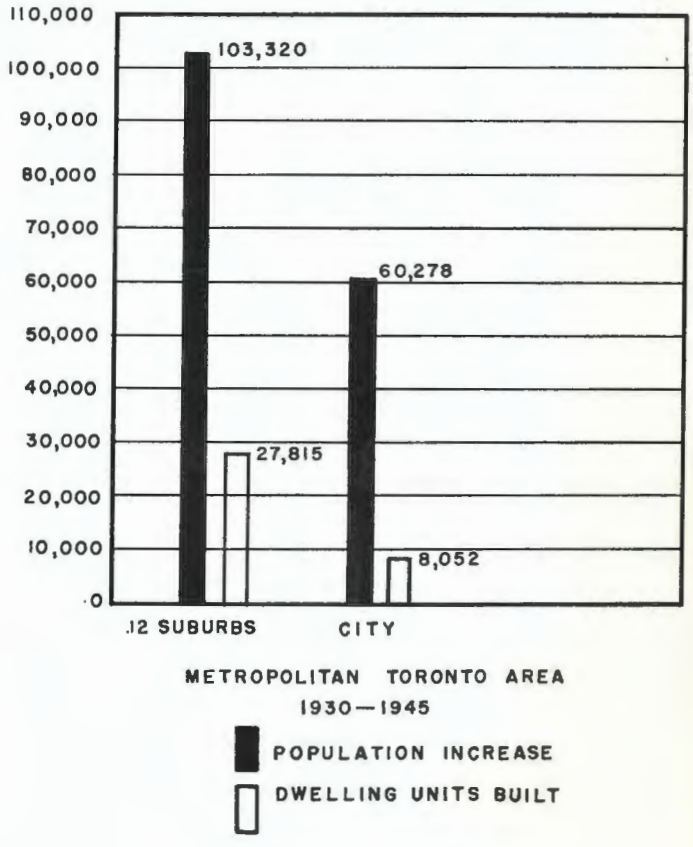
We have seen that the present dwelling unit shortage was estimated to be about 30,000. Add to this another 10,000, composed of 5,000 completely obsolete units within the city and 6,600 for mobility of family units (2% of total dwelling units) and we have 40,000 units.[3] But regardless of the total, if there is no effective demand under present prices for new accommodation, then from an economic viewpoint there is no housing shortage. It may be argued that the new legislation adopted a short time ago which permits 25% of a wife's income to be added to the purchaser's income in calculating qualifying income will counteract the point I have made. The fact of the matter is that the average married woman's income for Metropolitan Toronto, according to the 1951 census, was $1,352 per year, (the metropolitan median was $1,535 per year). This means that an average of only $338 (or 25%) could have been added if in 1951 the new legislation had been in effect. The average of weekly wages

[3]In an urban area, there are always some families moving from one place of residence to another, thus leaving a certain number of dwelling units vacant. It has been found, over a period of time, that these units usually amount to about 2% of the total number of dwelling units in the area. This movement is generally referred to as the "mobility of family units".



METROPOLITAN TORONTO'S ABSOLUTE DWELLING UNIT SHORTAGE.

BASED ON THE IDEAL OF ONE DWELLING UNIT PER FAMILY.



and salaries in Metropolitan Toronto's 7 leading industries on Dec. 1, 1953, was $61.00. On Dec. 1, 1954, it was $62.90. This gives an approximate 1954 average weekly wage of $61.95, or $3,221.40 annual average. Average earnings of female workers in the area rose about 13% from 1951 to 1953, and an estimated 18% to 1954. This would bring 25% of the average working wife's income to $398.54 in 1954, giving a total qualifying income of $3,620.25, still under the qualifying income of $3,729.54 for the average 1954 N.H.A. loan.

I do not want to give the impression that I am criticizing the body responsible for administering our present housing legislation. I think it is quite necessary to establish rules which will not allow too high a proportion of income to be spent on housing accommodation which would lead to the neglect of other basic needs. I am sure that the limitation of 23% of income to be spent on what is called "gross debt services" (principal, interest, insurance and taxes) has been carefully worked out and is no doubt beneficial in the long run. I think one must also remember that this limiting factor must be considered in the light of the legislation as a whole which permits the carrying out of joint housing schemes with direct Federal participation.

Assuming that the bridging of qualifying income and actual income will be extremely difficult, then costs must be reviewed so that the average loan can be decreased or rentals eased.

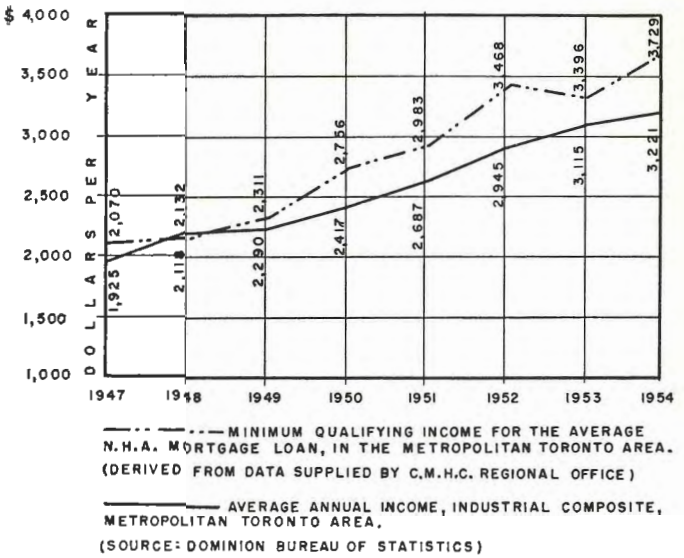
RECENT TRENDS IN OUR HOUSING

At this point, I should like to review the direction that our housing has taken in the last few years and comment on its effect on the larger problem of planning a large industrial city.

Back in 1930, 50% of all dwellings in the city of Toronto were occupied by their owners. This percentage decreased in 1941 to 41.3% and was back at 47.1% in 1944 due to the pressing housing shortage. With rent control, sales rose and by the end of the year there were 10,000 fewer rental housing units than in 1939. In Metropolitan Toronto during 1945 and 1946, 89.7% of all units completed were single family houses, 3.4% were in the form of duplexes or apartments and 6.9% were conversions.

TWO KINDS OF EQUILIBRIUM

The theory of the housing market, as described by Humphrey Carver in his report *Housing for Toronto—1947*, is that whenever the amount of money spent on living in old houses is high in relation to the cost of constructing a new dwelling, then the supply of new houses will respond and as the total number of units increases, rents will gradually decline until a kind of equilibrium is established. It must be remembered, however, that this equilibrium is an economic equilibrium and tends to balance the price of old housing with the price of new



— · — · — · — MINIMUM QUALIFYING INCOME FOR THE AVERAGE N.H.A. MORTGAGE LOAN, IN THE METROPOLITAN TORONTO AREA. (DERIVED FROM DATA SUPPLIED BY C.M.H.C. REGIONAL OFFICE)

———— AVERAGE ANNUAL INCOME, INDUSTRIAL COMPOSITE, METROPOLITAN TORONTO AREA. (SOURCE: DOMINION BUREAU OF STATISTICS)

housing. It is not an equilibrium between the numbers of dwelling units and the numbers of families or households.

The "filtering down" process whereby new houses are bought by high income families and then sold to lower income families after a period of time has not proved satisfactory because the volume has not been large enough both to provide for population growth and at the same time to permit the oldest, most obsolete dwellings to be torn down. At any rate, it is clear that all new housing must be paid for ultimately out of the incomes of the householders in the community. The amount of new housing construction, therefore, is directly related to the national income: the two indices tend to rise and fall together.

The proportions of the housing market are determined by the numbers of households that can afford the current costs of production. Normally, in periods when the upper income groups received high incomes, residential construction was stimulated and all economic levels benefited through the "filtering down" process. By the same token, the raising of incomes at the lower economic levels would have the same effect because their improved economic circumstances would enable them to offer more to the "well-to-do" for their second-hand houses and, theoretically, this would reduce the cost of new housing for the "well-to-do". The conclusion is that a rise in the income of the community as a whole, however it may be distributed, must have the effect of stimulating construction and thus benefiting directly or indirectly all classes. Therefore, the significant feature in a housing program seems to be the relationship between the average income and the current cost of paying for the construction of a new house.

STIMULATING NEW HOUSE CONSTRUCTION

But in practice this is not always true. The house, together with its household effects, is a long-term pos-

session and most families buy only once during their existence as a family group. This means that the new housing market is limited not to those who can afford a new house but to those who can afford and who want to buy a new house. However, we must not forget the factor of advertising which creates a desire and thus a market which otherwise might not exist.

Skilled architectural designers and imaginative planning can do a lot towards increasing the housing market. The full potentialities of the economic housing market should not be exploited and those who can must be encouraged to buy new houses rather than old ones.

STATISTICS OF SUBURBAN SPRAWL

Since only those with adequate income can satisfy their housing needs, we must devise ways and means of satisfying the remaining 50-60% of the potential market. The rate of construction from 1950 on has been mentioned. The average yearly construction from 1946 to the end of 1953 was 7,616 units. It is interesting to note the proportion of these units erected in the suburbs and in the city and the increased ratio of construction in the city. Table 2 shows the dwelling unit completions from 1950 to the end of September, 1954.

Apparently the ability of the speculative developer to obtain a quick return on his investment in the suburbs, as opposed to redevelopment in the city, has contributed to our increasing urban sprawl. Should the effective demand soon reach the supply of economic rental housing, it seems that either new devices must be used to reduce costs or subsidization becomes a vital necessity.

DECLINE OF URBAN CORE

From another point of view, increasing the rate of new investment in the outlying areas in a period of increasing wages (53% increase from 1947 to 1952) is being counterbalanced by an increasing decline in the quality of housing in the city. I think the most imaginative steps need to be taken to ensure that the central core of our urban area does not decline to such a point that few will want to live anywhere but on the fringe.

I have not had time to estimate how further growth can be related to the Metropolitan Council's servicing program. We are presently preparing service district maps which will enable us to estimate how much more we can grow outwards within a period of time. These maps will not tell us, of course, in what form further development should be. It is safe to assume, I think, that effective demand will continue and supply will be sufficient for some time to come. So long as wage levels remain high and the Metropolitan Corporation is able to extend services, I think we will see continued single-family house construction activity in the suburban area.

Without wishing to minimize the human aspects of housing, it is obvious that the economic considerations involved are extremely important. This paper has touched only the highlights of this complicated subject. Most of the data necessary to formulate intelligent and far-reaching policies have not yet been obtained. The only way in which they can be obtained is through intensive and continuing research. The Metropolitan Toronto Planning Board will do everything it can to aid in this research and to assist in the adoption of those policies that will help to relieve the situation.

Photo by Anson B. Cutts

A Nineteenth Century Toronto Suburban House on Bloor Street.

CONTRIBUTION DE L'ARCHITECTE A L'AMENAGEMENT URBAIN

par Edouard Fiset*

Ce titre même, que l'on a voulu donner à ce séminaire, lui confère une signification toute particulière. Il est le point de départ d'une prise de conscience, et constitue un défi.

Prise de conscience: quel est le rôle de l'Architecte dans la société, quelle est sa mission, quelle est sa place? . . .

Défi: a-t-il tenu cette place qui lui est assignée, et s'apprête-t-il à donner sa pleine contribution à la solution des problèmes complexes que pose l'aménagement de notre milieu de vie? . . .

Son œuvre constitue, en volume, en importance visuelle, en utilisation humaine, la plus grande part de l'aménagement urbain. Cette œuvre cependant est, le plus souvent, semblable à un conglomérat sans lien apparent, un assemblage, un rapprochement d'individus qui n'ont rien à se dire. Individus de pierre, de béton, de fer, de bois ou . . . de brique, de papier!

La construction, en général, et le bâtiment en particulier font partie d'une grande foule qui n'est pas animée par une idée commune.

L'œuvre de l'Architecte, partie intégrante et vitale de l'urbanisation de la "conurbation", n'est pas, ou à peu près pas, conçue en fonction de l'ensemble.

*L'auteur est architecte et urbaniste; né à Rimouski, il a étudié à l'Ecole des Beaux-Arts de Québec et à l'Ecole Supérieure Nationale des Beaux-Arts de Paris. Interné par les Allemands de 1940 à 1944, il a travaillé dans divers bureaux d'urbanisme de 1939 à 1951. Depuis le fin de 1945 est adjoint de l'urbaniste-conseil de la Capitale Nationale, et a servi comme architecte et urbaniste à plusieurs autorités.

Elle en perd beaucoup de force et de signification. Et ceci, à tel point, qu'une œuvre belle en soit, et architecturalement réussie, peut détonner et constituer un élément indésirable dans un entourage médiocre peut-être, mais homogène. A tel point également, que l'œuvre, réussite fonctionnelle, ne donnera pas le rendement voulu et possible, parce que déplacée et non intégrée dans un tout, autrement que par sa seule présence.

Ainsi, créant l'élément majeur de tout centre urbain, et l'élément final en quelque sorte pour lequel les autres travaux sont des auxiliaires (c'est-à-dire, la demeure, le lieu de travail, d'échange, de délassement, en un mot la construction), l'Architecte se désintéresserait de la conception d'ensemble, du sens du développement général et des données de base qui en déterminent les réalisations? . . .

Ceci est impossible à concevoir, et si cela était ainsi, cela voudrait dire que quelque chose ne va pas dans le royaume du Danemark.

Mais, avant de déterminer l'étendue actuelle du rôle de l'Architecte au premier stage du développement urbain (ce qui peut n'être qu'une incidence et ne rien prouver) essayons de préciser la nature de ce rôle, à quel point il peut être valable et comment l'intervention de l'Architecte peut influencer et orienter les modalités de ce développement.

Pouvons-nous tirer une leçon du passé? Les exemples évoqués ou exhumés peuvent-ils être concluants? . . . Les leçons de l'histoire peuvent-elles devenir des directives pour l'Architecte d'aujourd'hui? . . .

Je crois que oui.

Tout en reconnaissant les changements profonds qui se sont opérés dans la physionomie urbaine, dans les

LA RUE D'AUTEUIL, A QUEBEC

Relevé Fait par le Service d'Urbanisme Municipal.

"L'harmonie des villes du passé était due, soit à l'intervention d'une seule pensée directrice, soit à l'application d'une technique limitée, et à la mise en œuvre de matériaux plus près des œuvres de la nature, le tout secondé par une sensibilité mieux éduquée."

sciences et les techniques qui conditionnent les œuvres, dans les régimes politiques même, dans la distribution et l'utilisation du savoir humain, il n'en demeure pas moins qu'essentiellement la ville garde les mêmes éléments constitutifs: constructions, réseaux de rues, parcs, places, monuments, sites, etc. et l'Architecte, comme dans le passé, est, au premier chef l'artisan principal de la construction.

Mais il est plus que cela, il est en quelque sorte l'organisateur de l'espace. Il est celui qui agence et compose les lignes, les surfaces et les volumes avec des matériaux concrets, réservant les espaces voulus pour la mise en valeur ou le fonctionnement logique de l'œuvre construite. Bref, il est non seulement constructeur mais il est aussi compositeur.

Ce rôle, il l'a rempli dans le passé, et l'apport de son métier a marqué le visage du monde, si non civilisé, du moins habité.

Des noms prestigieux témoignent de ce rôle. Les ensembles cyclopéens et rigides des civilisations antiques et absolues; les agencements subtils et harmoniques des villes helléniques; les compositions amples et hautaines de Rome; les places fortifiées aux puissants donjons; les villes gracieuses des pays méditerranéens; les grandes composi-

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NOTE DE LA REDACTION. *L'aménagement ne fait pas qu'améliorer l'apparence physique du paysage. Il contribue, pour sa part, à notre développement culturel, comme nation. Travail d'équipe entre les professions, il étend singulièrement notre vision et nous permet d'appliquer notre compétence à des projets de plus grande envergure et de plus grande portée.*

Dans notre désir d'explorer le rôle spécifique de chaque profession, nous avons demandé à M. Fiset son résumé d'un discours à l'occasion de la 64ième assemblée annuelle de l'Association des Architectes de la Province de Québec, à Montréal, le 21 janvier, 1955.

L'espoir de M. Fiset dans la conception d'ensemble peut faire penser que ses confrères sont peu enclins à projeter grand. Trop d'architectes, comme bien d'autres artistes, techniciens doivent travailler à un moment donné, dans les limites imposées par des hommes à courte vue et à but "pratique". De plus, l'élément créateur dans trop de professions est désavantagé, souvent sans nécessité par l'isolement. Le grand avantage de l'aménagement communal vient de ce que, en y participant, chaque profession ajoute à sa taille et à son influence sur la vie quotidienne.

Nous comptons bien que des commentaires comme ceux de M. Fiset vont mettre en branle des discussions utiles sur le rôle des professions—séparément et dans l'ensemble—dans l'aménagement de nos agglomérations.

EDITORIAL NOTE: *To plan our communities is not only to improve our physical landscape. It is a contribution to our cultural growth as a nation. Being a teamwork between the professions, it greatly extends our visions and enables us to apply our skills to larger and more significant projects.*

Wishing to explore the special role of each profession, we have asked M. Fiset for this summary of an address given at the 64th Annual Assembly of the Association of Architects of the Province of Quebec, at Montreal, on January 21st, 1955.

In his hope for la conception d'ensemble, *M. Fiset may appear to underestimate the readiness of most of his fellow architects to design on a grander scale. Many architects, along with all other artists and technicians, work within limits which are at any given time determined less by them than by men of narrower vision and "practical" objectives. The creative elements in all of the professions are handicapped to some degree—unnecessarily so by their isolation from one another. The significance of community planning is that, by participating in it, each profession adds immeasurably to its stature and its influence in our common life.*

It is our hope that such comments as those of M. Fiset will encourage a useful discussion of the roles of the professions—separately and together—in the planning of our communities.

tions que les tyrans, les empereurs ou les rois ont laissé sur leur passage; les cités si pleines de charme, d'imprévu et de pittoresque que l'homme pouvait plus librement ériger; bref à toutes les époques, sous tous les régimes politiques ou climatériques! dans tous les pays, on peut trouver ce témoignage de l'œuvre de l'homme, de l'Architecte. Je dis de "l'Architecte", quoique bien souvent ce mot ou cette profession ait été inconnu, mais j'inclus dans cette grande famille de l'Architecte: le constructeur, l'artiste, ou l'artisan, qui avec son goût propre, ses connaissances et les moyens matériels dont il dispose, conçoit, dessine ou érige tout ou une partie d'un ouvrage d'art.

Ces œuvres, si elles ne rencontrent pas nos standards matériels ou si leurs conceptions sociales ne sont pas satisfaisantes à nos yeux, n'en restent pas moins réelles, durables, vivantes, souvent harmonieuses, très souvent admirables.

La ville d'aujourd'hui, par contre, n'offre aucun ensemble cohérent. C'est, littéralement, un chaos. Et la grande ville, trop souvent mérite l'invective qu'un littérateur en mal de vilipende adressait (d'ailleurs un peu injustement) à Montréal: "Montréal, monstre amorphe et anonyme, agglutination de bitume et de béton . . ." etc. Et cette ville, guère plus que par le passé, ne répond aux standards de vie qu'une civilisation exige.

Que s'est-il donc passé entre ces deux périodes, qui entraîne une telle dégénérescence dans le visage des villes. Peut-on attribuer cet état de chose au fait que la collaboration de l'Architecte n'est plus aussi suivie? Ce serait là un peu présomptueux. Mais par contre, on peut fort bien se demander si une collaboration accrue n'aurait pas une influence heureuse sur l'aspect, le fonctionnement et le confort de la ville. Poser la question, c'est presqu'y répondre.

L'harmonie des villes du passé était due, soit à l'intervention d'une seule pensée directrice, soit à l'application d'une technique limitée, et à la mise en œuvre de matériaux plus près des œuvres de la nature, le tout secondé par une sensibilité mieux éduquée.

La technique moderne ne connait plus les mêmes bornes. Les exigences particulières sont plus disparates. Le résultat en est fatalement plus chaotique et non seulement du point de vue esthétique mais aussi du point de vue de la fonction, et par incidence de l'économie.

L'intervention de l'Architecte, en mettant de l'ordre, en équilibrant les masses et les activités, en introduisant des éléments de composition, c'est-à-dire de vie, rendra à la ville ce qu'elle a perdu, ce à quoi elle a droit: son caractère, sa signification et sa vitalité.

L'Architecte doit donc être appelé à participer à la composition et à l'agencement de l'ensemble dont il doit, de toutes façons, faire tant de parties diverses. Ainsi, il pourra apporter son concours précieux d'organisateur de l'espace et il ne laissera pas au hasard le choix des divers éléments qui entrent dans une composition urbains.

Mais, il lui faut en quelque sorte étendre ses disciplines. Il faut qu'il s'intègre plus complètement, et plus généreusement à la société.

Il ne doit plus y avoir de tour d'ivoire, dans laquelle le praticien s'enferme, s'isole, et se complait dans un complexe de supériorité qu'il s'évite d'émousser par des contacts vivifiants.

L'aménagement du cadre urbain constitue un des aspects les plus pressants de cette invitation à l'Architecte à participer plus entièrement à l'organisation sociale et à concourir au façonnement de notre milieu de vie.

Son éducation, son entraînement, sa science propres lui permettront de prendre une part active et même décisive dans les phases suivantes de l'élaboration d'un programme d'aménagement:

1. D'après les données physiques, sociologiques et économiques, établissement d'un plan directeur. Un tel plan, en effet requiert des connaissances profondes en composition, l'art d'agencer les parties composantes, celui, également, de subordonner le secondaire au principal ainsi que la discipline d'esprit et de technique qui est propre à l'Architecte.

2. Plus particulièrement, composition du cœur de la ville, des places et des rues, en vue d'intégrer dans un ensemble fonctionnel, des masses équilibrées et des formes harmonieuses.

3. Participation à la préparation des règlements de zonages, où son sens des proportions et sa connaissance des volumes et des matériaux et, en général, de toutes les parties composantes, seront précieux à l'administrateur.

Et finalement il saura donner préséance à certaines valeurs humaines, trop souvent reléguées au second plan par des exigences fonctionnelles ou économiques immédiates, immodérément exagérées.

L'Architecte ne remplit pas actuellement ou ne remplit que sporadiquement ce rôle. Si sa valeur et son concours sont reconnus et "exploités" à fond à l'étranger, il est, chez nous, presqu'ignoré et méconnu.

Il lui appartient cependant d'assurer sa propre réhabilitation dans ce domaine, et de faire valoir les avantages de sa collaboration. Ceci peut se faire sur le plan individuel, en participant plus activement aux mouvements qui ont pour but de promouvoir l'urbanisme, et aux débats ou conférences sur des problèmes d'aménagement municipal ou autres. Qu'il ne recule pas, non plus, devant un travail gratuit; l'étude d'un problème d'aménagement à l'ordre du jour aura des répercussions plus grandes que des interventions multiples de caractère politique ou intéressé.

Notre Association, qui doit sauvegarder l'intérêt de la profession toute entière, se doit également d'affirmer le rôle de l'Architecte dans l'aménagement urbain. L'enseignement devrait aussi faire une part de plus en plus grande à cette question à l'ordre du jour.

"La contribution de l'Architecte aux aménagements, urbains". C'est un programme d'action et c'est un défi. A nous de relever le gant.

EDOUARD FISET

RECREATIONAL LAND USE PLANNING IN THE ST. LAWRENCE SEAWAY AREA, ONTARIO

by Harold A. Wood*

No planning scheme in the history of Canada has attracted so much attention as the proposal for the redevelopment of the area on the shore of the St. Lawrence River between Cornwall and Iroquois, Ontario. The constant publicity for this project has resulted not only from the fact that many and prolonged international complications attended its authorization but from the momentous importance of the new facilities which are going to be provided for power and navigation. Land use planning of the area is only a by-product of the wider purposes of the scheme; but it has evoked nation-wide interest because of the impending flooding of towns, villages, farmsteads, roads and railway lines and the necessity of re-establishing these elements elsewhere.

As might be expected, it is the relocation of communities which has provoked the most lively concern and controversy because of the numbers of people involved, the high value of the property concerned and the strong development of local public opinion on such matters. Announcements on the relocation of transportation routes have also been keenly anticipated, because such facilities could have a considerable influence on future land values.

In contrast, recreational redevelopment in the St. Lawrence area has received little public attention. In a sense, this is understandable; up to the present, the area has not been important recreationally. Yet, with the shoreline changes which will take place, its value for recreational use will be radically altered. In no other aspect of land use in the seaway area will there be a greater difference between what now exists and what could exist in the future.

Yet recreational land use here, as in all densely settled areas, depends on planning for its survival and health. This is an area in which many uses even now compete for the land and the competition in the future will be far more intense. The economic return from the use of land for recreational purposes will be so small, relatively, that this type of land use will not easily be able to establish or maintain itself in opposition to transportational, industrial or commercial uses. And it must not be forgotten that even if these do not actually encroach directly on recreational land, their mere proximity may adversely affect the value of the area for recreation.

Since it is along the St. Lawrence River that economic activity is concentrated, it is probable that if the laws of economic competition were allowed to operate freely, recreational land might, eventually if not immediately, be excluded from the water front altogether. This would be tantamount to a prohibition of recreation in the entire area; for here, as in most lowland areas, it is the juxtaposition of land and water which provides the scenic beauty, the moderate temperatures and the diversity of activities which are required by the urban dweller for the rebuilding of his body and the quieting of his mind. If recreational land is to exist here at all, it must be along the river; and it can only be assured of survival under favourable conditions if all land uses are carefully and authoritatively regulated. Here, therefore, the planner finds much to occupy him and his services are urgently required.

PRESENT RECREATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The first object of this paper is to examine the present recreational development in the four townships which will be most directly affected by the St. Lawrence Seaway and Power Project: Matilda, Williamsburg, Osnabruck and Cornwall. A study of the *status quo* is always a prerequisite to successful planning; for even though many modifications are anticipated, one must always be familiar with the raw materials and try to reconcile the patterns of the future with those of the past.

The second object is to analyse future conditions which will exist for recreation when the power dam to be built at Cornwall has deepened the river by as much as eighty feet and produced an entirely new shoreline.

Looking now at the existing situation, we find two conditions which are so uniform that they have not been mapped. These are the slope and drainage of the shore above the river-bank bluff. Good drainage and gentle slopes are general and cottage construction is nowhere seriously handicapped by these factors. It will be noted also that the entire shore is accessible. Provin-

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cial Highway No. 2 closely follows the water's edge and all sections can be reached easily by car.

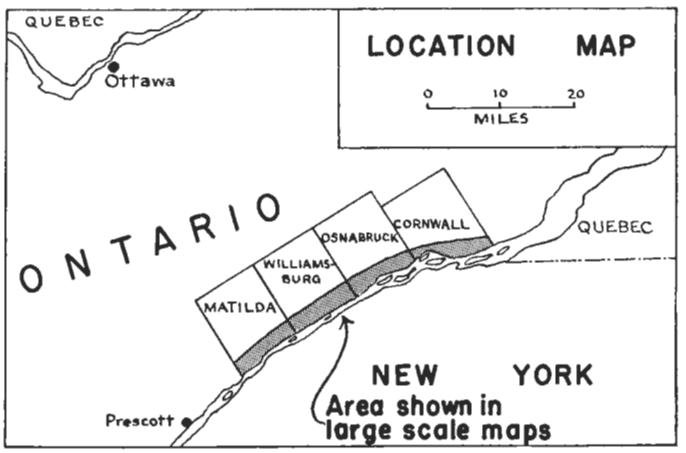
The river, however, is more varied. Rapids occur at several places, the most spectacular being the Long Sault Rapids just below Dickinson's Landing. In these stretches of fast water, boating, fishing and swimming are impracticable or impossible. Even in the stretches of river between the rapids, the current flows swiftly and the river deepens rapidly away from the shore, making use of the water for recreational purposes rather dangerous except for skilled boatsmen and swimmers.

The greatest differentiation of the shoreline, however, is found in the ease of access to the water. We are not primarily concerned here with minor obstacles such as patches of reeds along the shore or steep banks up to twenty feet in height. That the latter condition exerts some unfavourable influence, especially on privately-owned cottages, may be inferred from an examination of the maps of the present river frontage. This influence, however, is negligible when compared with that of the navigation canals which follow the river bank for approximately seventeen miles in the area under discussion. Here access to the river is made almost impossible and use of the shore for recreational purposes is limited further by strict regulations concerning use of canal water, including rules prohibiting the dumping of wastes, and also by the fact that most of the land adjoining the canals is government-owned.

It is true that some boating and swimming take place in the canals, but such minor activities do not counterbalance the disadvantages of this part of the shore for recreational purposes as can be seen in the distribution of cottages. Along the seventeen miles of canal frontage, there is only one cottage. In contrast, along the thirty-nine miles of river frontage unencumbered by canals there are approximately 246 cottages. The disproportion is of even greater magnitude than at first appears, for the thirty-nine miles mentioned above includes the shores of several islands unused because of their inaccessibility.

Canals are then the principal cause of the striking unevenness in the distribution of recreational land along the river front. It is evident, however, that other factors are operative as well, for even where no canal is present cottage distribution is far from uniform.

From the maps it may be seen that, where the highway passes very close to the river, cottages are absent. In many places there is not enough level land between road and river for a cottage site, and this completely excludes recreational land use since all cottages are on the river side of the highway. But even when the proximity of the road and the water is not so extreme, the road may be considered to be a handicap in some respects. Automobile traffic during the day and truck traffic at night are very heavy, constituting a grave danger to pedestrians, particularly children, and seriously



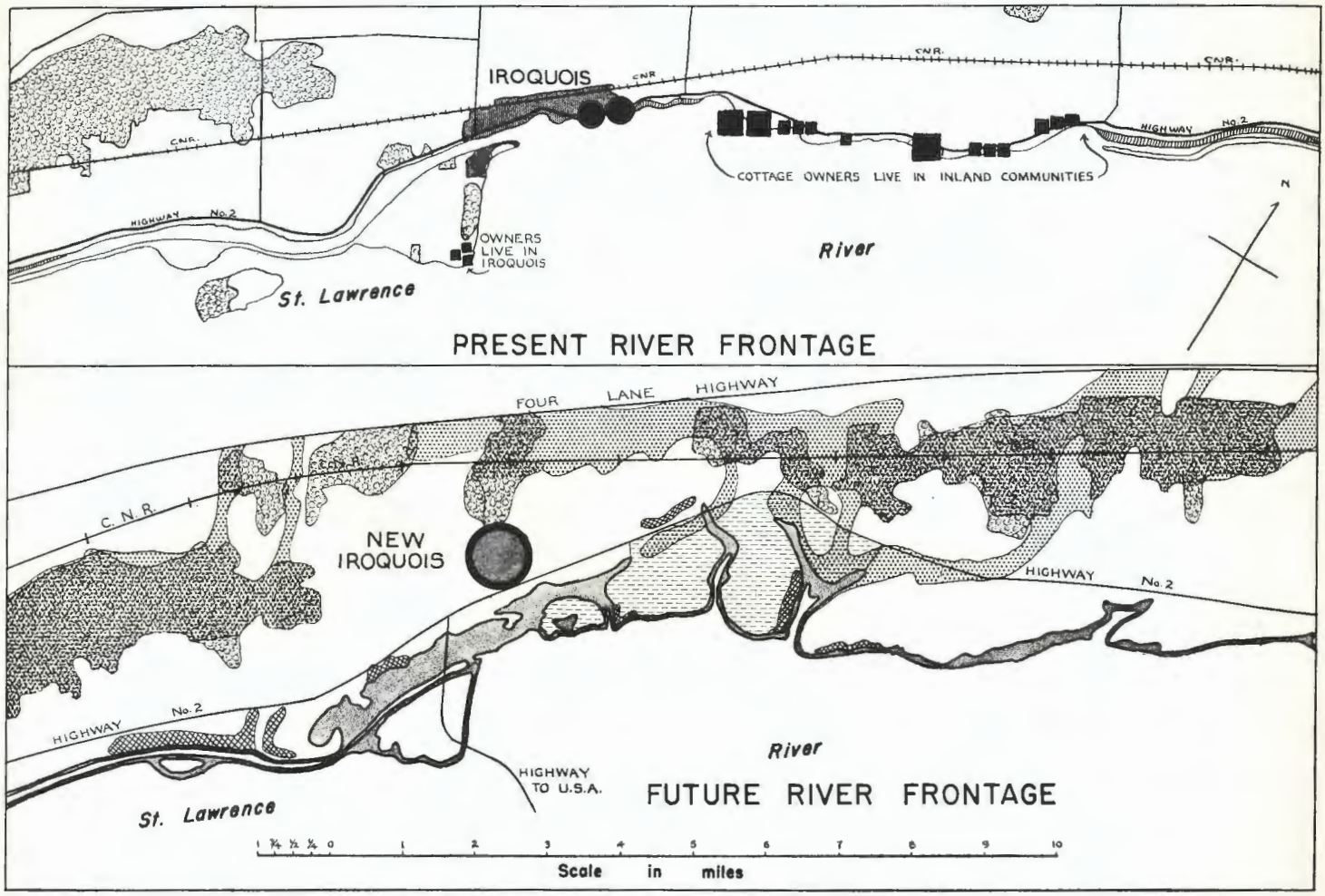
disturbing the slumbers of those who live near the highway.

That proximity to the highway is a far greater deterrent to recreational uses than the presence of high river banks is demonstrated by the dense cottage developments on the eastern and western extremities of Sheek Island. Here the river is quite inaccessible and even if it could be easily reached it has little value for active recreation because of the presence of the Long Sault Rapids. Admittedly the rapids provide magnificent scenery.

A final fact to consider (not because it helps explain the distribution of cottages, but as part of the total picture important to the planner), is the normal place of residence of those who use the shore for recreation. The area has failed to attract non-transient vacationers from near-by major cities such as Montreal, Toronto or Ottawa. Other districts with the advantages of calm water, forested shores, good beaches and more northerly latitudes have provided too strong a competition. Despite the beauty of the river, and with perhaps five or six exceptions, only local people have built cottages here.

The Maps

Present and future conditions are shown in parallel, by townships, in the maps. The future river margin has been taken as following the 240′ contour, a level which, as closely as the writer can judge, will mark the normal maximum high water level. Drainage conditions and the occurrence of sand have been taken from maps of the Ontario Soil Survey and the locations of future roads, railways, towns and parks from published accounts and maps in the press. The positions of these are shown only approximately, but with sufficient accuracy for the purposes of this study. Land utilization, the height of the river-bank bluff and the location of cottages are from personal observations. In mapping the last of these, tourist cabins catering to overnight guests only have been omitted, as the visitors involved are seeking accommodation rather than recreation. Rental cottages are shown, however, where guests customarily remain for a week or longer and all private cottages are included. Public parks are so small, so few and with such limited facilities that they have been omitted from the maps of the present river frontage.



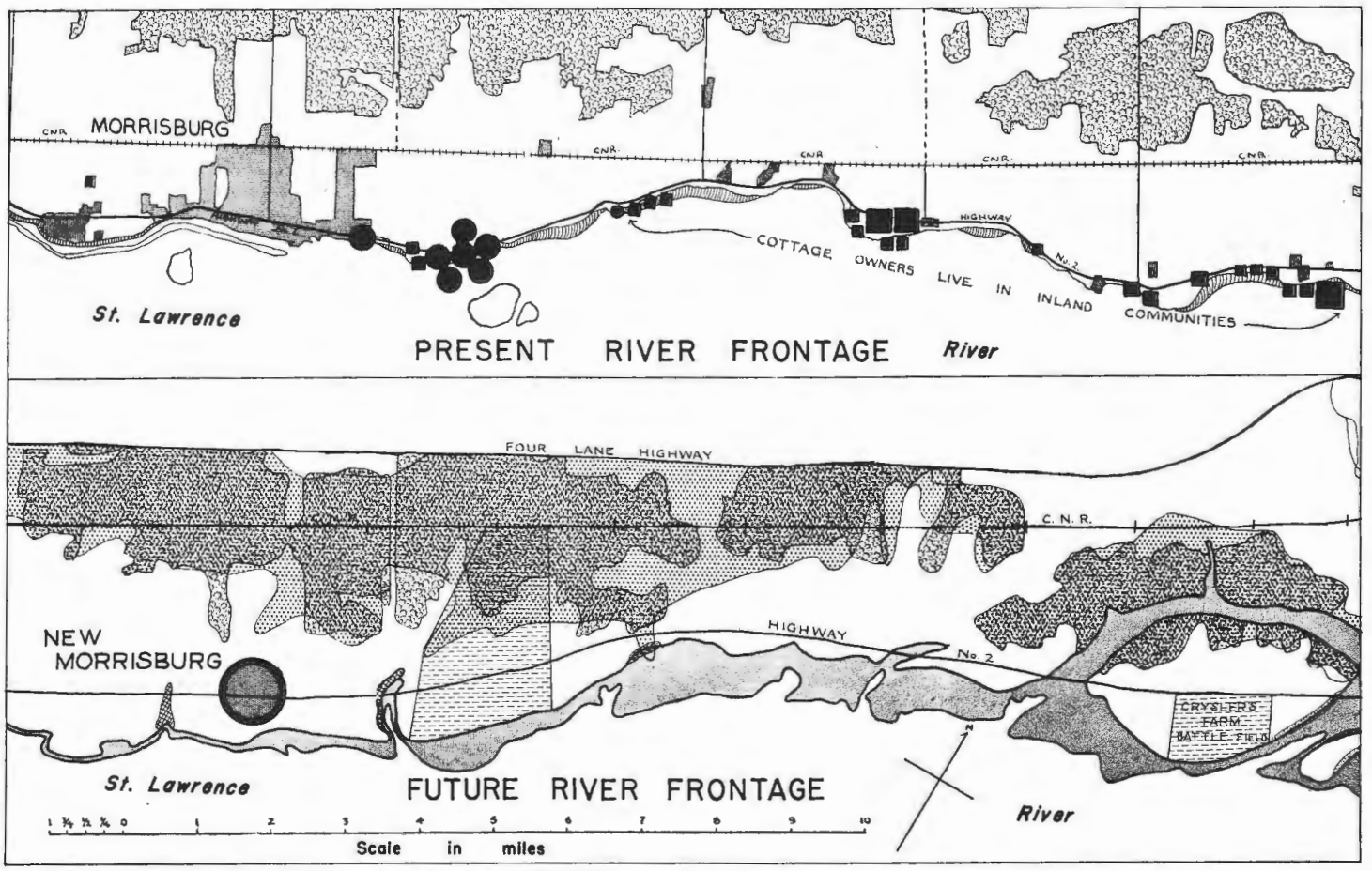
MATILDA TOWNSHIP

They have come from two main areas, from the industrial city of Cornwall and from inland communities. Within a straight line distance of seventeen miles from Cornwall, most of the cottagers reside in that city, whereas extending both east and west of Morrisburg for six or seven miles is a strip of shore used almost exclusively by residents of such towns as Winchester, Chesterville, Williamsburg and South Mountain who travel south along highway No. 31 to Morrisburg and from there move out to suitable spots along the river.

Those who live in the smaller riverside communities do not generally feel the need of separate summer homes when their permanent residences are set in attractive surroundings and are never more than a few hundred yards from the water. Even among these towns, however, there is some variation. The number of cottages maintained by urban dwellers is closely related to the level of industrialization in the town. Citizens of Morrisburg, which is mainly commercial, own only one or two cottages. Iroquois depends on industry for about half of its livelihood and its townspeople possess perhaps half a dozen cottages. The people of Cardinal, on the other hand, which is more heavily industrialized, make very intensive use of the shore for private cottage sites. Cardinal lies seven miles west of Iroquois in Edwardsburg Township, outside the area of our major concern.

In general, rental cottages also serve the needs of local residents. Since most of the cottages are very run down and few have indoor plumbing, they are patronized principally by members of lower income groups who cannot afford to build and maintain their own summer homes. A large proportion, notably those immediately east of Farran's Point, are located on rather undesirable sites, very close to the highway and separated from the river by a high bank.

An important exception to much of the foregoing is found in the recreational area just east of Morrisburg where there is excellent rental accommodation catering chiefly to relatively well-to-do people from outside the local district, Montreal and Ottawa being especially well represented. Physical conditions here are better than average. The shore is low, yet well drained. The high-



WILLIAMSBURG TOWNSHIP

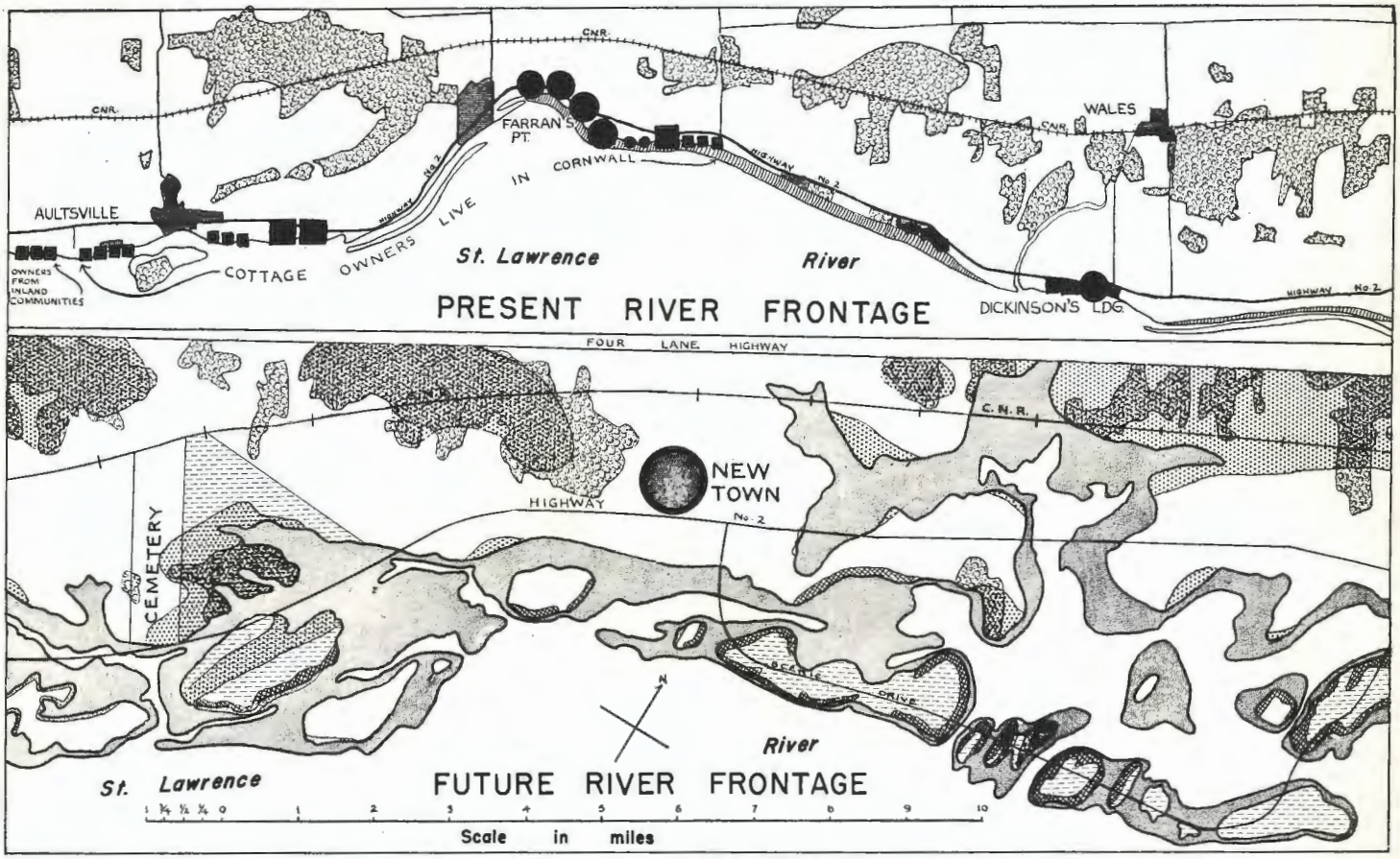
way is sufficiently removed from the river to reduce noise, yet close enough to provide ready accessibility. Individual initiative has played an important part in the development of this area. It is definitely not typical of the shoreline as a whole.

FUTURE POSSIBILITIES: THE PHYSICAL CHANGES

The first fact which appears in comparing future with present conditions is that the river shore will be much longer than it is now. The many embayments formed by the flooding of stream valleys and the islands formed by the isolating of hills will mean an overall increase in the water frontage in the section between the power dam and the western limit of Matilda Township of from 48 miles to 104 miles. Even when from the latter figure three miles are deducted as representing sections where a dike forms the shore, it is clear that the usable shoreline will be more than doubled in length. Since it is land immediately adjacent to the water which is of primary importance for recreation, this fact will be of great significance in the future development of the area. Furthermore, along very little of the new shore will the river be made inaccessible due to the presence of canals.

Of equal importance will be the change in the character of the river itself. The St. Lawrence will no longer be a rushing stream interrupted by rapids, beautiful yet violent and treacherous. Instead it will become a placid body of water, more a lake than a river, with velocities nowhere so great as to prove hazardous for swimming or boating. Scenic qualities may be slightly reduced, but the recreational utility of the river will be vastly increased.

Much of the offshore water will, however, be shallow. Areas in which depths will be less than five feet are indicated on the maps; it will be noted that from Morrisburg eastward to the line between Osnabruck and Cornwall Townships the average distance from the river bank to the line of five foot depths is approximately a quarter of a mile. For certain activities, this may not be very significant. Fishing should prove excellent in the shallow stretches which will soon fill with marsh grasses. Boating may not suffer greatly as the deeper sections of the river will not be inaccessible by water. On the other



OSNABRUCK TOWNSHIP

hand, swimming will be adversely affected by the shallow weedy water.

Of equal importance in reducing the value of the shore for swimming and, in some measure, for all recreational purposes is the texture of the materials which will form the new shore. In almost all places the shore will be of clay or loam; sand will occur over only five miles out of the total 101 miles of usable river frontage. Beaches will not form quickly. The river current will be too feeble to wash away the finer particles and leave behind a sandy or gravelly shore as at present exists. Furthermore, wave action, which produces beaches on the margins of large water bodies, will not be particularly effective due to the relatively narrow width of the lake formed behind the dam. Unless winds can exert their influence over a considerable length of "fetch", the waves they produce are small and incapable of rapid shore modification. Hence for decades the shore, unless artificially provided with sand, will have beaches only in the few widely scattered sections where sand already exists. These sections are indicated on the maps of future shoreline conditions.

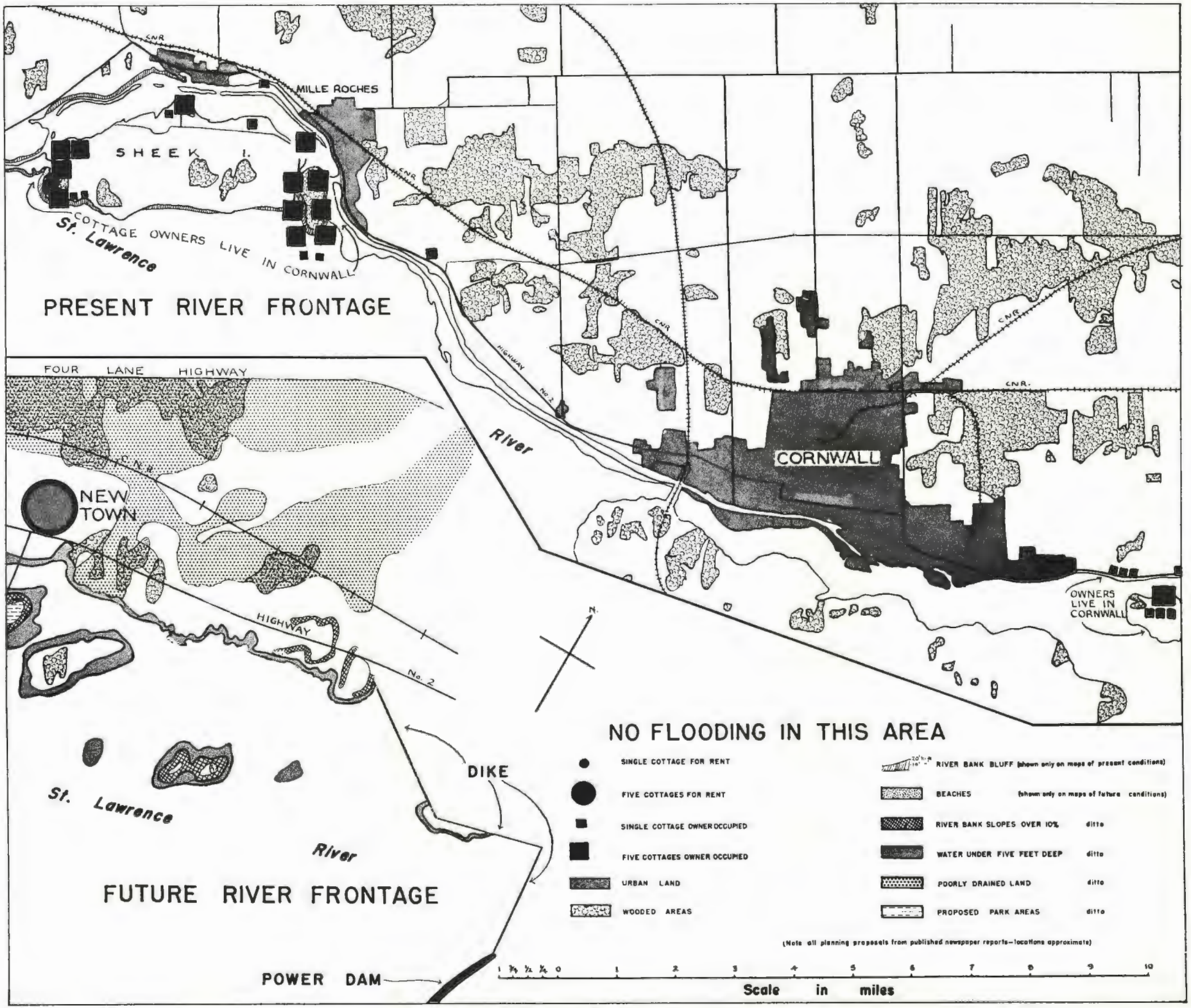
From the viewpoint of cottage location, the low shores, permitting easy access to the water, will be an advantage, particularly in view of the natural and artificial regulation of the river's flow which will make flooding a virtual impossibility. Unfortunately, however, approximately twenty percent of the shore will be so poorly drained as to be unsuitable for cottage sites.

A further disadvantage, but one which will be no more serious in the future than at present, will be the relative scarcity of forest land on the new shore. The margin of the river will come to rest on former farm land, where trees are few and scattered except on a few sites, most of which have been allowed to remain in woods only because they suffer from poor drainage. It is of course to be expected that reforestation will be practised; but a considerable period will elapse before the trees cover the cottages with cooling shade and screen from view the daily round of man's economic activities of which the vacationer does not wish to be reminded.

CULTURAL CHANGES

Besides the changes in the physical characteristics significant for recreation, there will be changes in cultural features, most of which will be beneficial.

First, the problem of competing recreational and transportational land uses will all but disappear. Through



CORNWALL TOWNSHIP

traffic, which now proves highly destructive of recreational values, will be carried over a new four-lane highway to be built two to three miles away from the river. The shore will be accessible via a river road and scenic drive which will, however, in very few places be so close to the water as to make it impossible to establish cottages beside the river; and it will, moreover, link a number of islands with the mainland. Canals will also be removed except at Iroquois and near the power dam where the presence of a dike precludes the use of the shore for recreation.

Clearly, despite some drawbacks, the extent of river frontage suitable for recreation will be greatly increased in the future and in general a wider range of recreational activities will be possible than are carried on at present.

There will also be more people in the locality to utilize the shore. The distribution, size and functions of riverside towns will be greatly altered with the completion of the Seaway Project. Between Morrisburg and Cornwall, six existing villages will be linked together to form two new towns: one in Cornwall, the other in Osnabruck Township. Careful study shows that these towns will not be able to live entirely from commerce and will have to acquire some industry. Towns such as Morrisburg and Iroquois will also become more industrialized and will grow rapidly; for them, a half century of uncertainty comes to an end and they are at last able to develop in a manner commensurate with the advantages of their sites and situations.

Even if there is little increase in the population of inland communities, it is inevitable that the local demand for recreational land will rise materially. The amount of land available for this purpose will rise so much more abruptly, however, that for a considerable period of time there will be adequate numbers of cottage sites to take care of the needs of the locality and also to provide for many vacationers from more distant parts of Canada and from the United States.

SUMMARY

From the new Iroquois westward to the western boundary of Matilda Township the river front will be of only fair recreational value. Drainage is good, but part of the shore is characterized by steep slopes and much of the remainder will be taken up for the construction of a navigation lock.

From Iroquois to Morrisburg, conditions will be good. The shore will be well drained, not too low and steeply sloping for only about one mile. Offshore water, except in a few deep embayments, will deepen rapidly. The highway will be sufficiently removed from the river to pose no obstacle to recreational use, yet close enough to provide accessibility. No canal will bar access to the river. The only major drawbacks will be the absence of beaches and of woodland along the shore.

From Morrisburg eastward for five miles, recreational assets will decline once more and can only be considered as being of moderate value. The river bank will be low, and water less than five feet deep will extend offshore to an average distance of over a quarter of a mile. One short sand beach will exist but, by unfortunate coincidence, the area adjacent to it will form the only poorly-drained zone in this section of the shore. The highway, moreover, will closely parallel the river bank and reduce the area between the road and river suitable for recreation. Here, too, no wooded areas will be found along the shore.

To the east again, the shoreline changes character radically and abruptly. From the eastern limit of the section just described to a point two miles east of the future town in Osnabruck Township, the river front will be marked by many indentations and a large number of islands, separated from the mainland by very shallow water. This will probably soon fill with marsh grasses and may even be artificially filled in. The limited recreational utility of the mainland shore will be further reduced by its low gradient, discouraging the construction of cottages; and though several sections of the shore will be forested, these will be so poorly drained as to be virtually useless. Access will also be made difficult over much of this shore as the river road will follow the offshore islands while the railway line and limited access highway to the north will preclude an easy approach from this direction.

The islands, however, will offer much brighter prospects, particularly on their southern shores. Here slopes in general will be steeper than on the mainland and offshore water not too shallow. There will be no woods at the outset but drainage will be relatively good and there will even be a number of beaches. Unfortunately, not all of these islands will be linked by road with the mainland.

The remaining part of the river front as far east as the beginning of the dike will be the most valuable from a recreational standpoint. Islands become more numerous and are separated from the mainland by relatively deep water. Except in a large shallow embayment roughly midway between the two new towns, the river will everywhere deepen rapidly enough offshore to permit good swimming and boating. Drainage will not be ideal on the mainland shore and several sections will be so wet as to rule out intensive development, but large stretches will be useful and even the embayment mentioned above, with its shallow water and swampy shore, will be of considerable value as a fishing ground.

Again the best cottage sites will be on the islands. These islands will generally be high, if somewhat steep-sided and nearly devoid of forest. Fortunately a large number of the islands will be joined to the mainland by a scenic drive which will greatly increase their usefulness.

In conclusion, the St. Lawrence Seaway and Power Project will create in the area under discussion a recreational resource so different from that now existing and so much more important that it might well be considered a new resource. Because of the vulnerable nature of recreational land in general, careful planning is necessary to conserve this resource.

It is evident that this planning is already in progress. Large areas, among them some of the most useful for recreation, have already been set aside as parkland. It is to be hoped that measures will be taken to ensure the wise use and the conservation of the recreational values of other sections of the shore as well. If this is done, the Cornwall-Iroquois recreational area will no longer be limited to local patronage but may well provide a summer playground for increasing numbers of urban residents from other parts of northeastern North America.

Aménagement en vue des loisirs le long du canal du St-Laurent en Ontario

par Harold A. Wood
de l'Université McMaster

RÉSUMÉ

Traduction par Jacques Simard

Partant à l'ouest de la nouvelle ville d'Iroquois vers la frontière ouest du canton Matilda, le bord de l'eau sera d'une utilité moyenne pour les loisirs. L'égouttement est bon mais une partie de la rive est faite de pentes abruptes et presque tout le reste sera utilisé dans la construction d'une écluse.

D'Iroquois à Morrisburg, les conditions sont bonnes. La Rive sera bien égouttée, pas trop basse et abrupte pour à peine un mille. L'eau au large devient profonde rapidement à l'exception de quelques baies. La grande route sera suffisamment éloignée de la rivière pour ne pas nuire à la villégiature, tout en gardant l'accessibilité. Il n'y aura pas de canal pour empêcher l'accès à la rivière. Les seules déficiences importantes seront l'absence de grève et de bois le long de la côte.

De Morrisburg vers l'est sur une distance de cinq milles, l'utilisation de la côte pour les loisirs devient de plus en plus difficile et présente peu d'intérêt. La berge sera basse et l'eau n'aura pas plus de cinq pieds de profondeur pour plus d'un quart de mille. Une petite grève de sable s'y trouve bien mais malheureusement la région environnante est la seule mal égouttée de cette partie de la côte. En plus, la route sera si près de la rive que l'espace entre la route et l'eau sera fortement réduit. On ne trouve pas de bois dans cette région.

Plus à l'est, l'aspect de la rive change complètement et soudainement. Des limites de cette partie plus haut décrite jusqu'à un point à deux milles à l'est de la future ville dans le canton d'Osnabruck, la rive sera ponctuée par un nombre considérable de découpures et d'îles, séparées de la terre ferme par de l'eau très peu profonde qui se couvrira bientôt d'herbes marécageuses et qui pourra aussi être remplie de terre. L'utilité limitée de ce territoire pour les loisirs se complique du fait de la pente peu prononcée et peu accueillante pour les chalets; de plus, malgré que plusieurs endroits de la rive seront boisés, ces emplacements trop peu égouttés seront peu utiles.

L'accès sera difficile sur la grande partie du territoire parce que la route suivra les îles du large tandis que le chemin de fer et la route secondaire, au nord, limitera l'accès dans cette direction.

Par contre, les îles présenteront des avantages plus marqués en particulier sur leur rive sud. Les pentes, en général, y seront plus prononcées que sur la côte et l'eau du large, plus profonde. Rien ne sera boisé au début mais l'égouttement y sera relativement facile; il y aura même des grèves; malheureusement il y a des îles qui ne seront pas reliées au rivage par la route.

Ce qui reste de la rive, aussi loin vers l'est que le départ de la digue, aura le plus d'avantages pour les loisirs. Les îles seront plus nombreuses et séparées de la côte par de l'eau profonde. Sauf dans une baie étendue mais peu profonde, à moitié chemin entre les deux villes nouvelles, la rivière devient rapidement plus profonde au large, permettant de la natation et du bateau. L'égouttement ne sera pas idéal sur la rive et plusieurs endroits seront humides, ce qui empêchera un développement intensif; mais de grandes étendues seront utilisables, même la baie mentionnée plus haut avec ses eaux peu profondes et ses rives marécageuses qui seront probablement poissonneuses.

Là aussi les meilleurs sites pour chalets seront sur les îles. Ces îles seront élevées, en général, non boisées et d'accès raide. Heureusement, une grande partie de ces îles seront reliées à la terre ferme par une route panoramique, ce qui augmentera de beaucoup leur utilité.

Pour conclure, le projet de canalisation du St-Laurent va contribuer à faire naître, dans l'espace décrit, une valeur pour les loisirs, si différente de celle qui existe et tellement plus importante, qu'on peut bien considérer l'événement comme un capital nouveau. A cause de la vulnérabilité des terrains pour loisirs, un aménagement consciencieux est essentiel pour conserver ce capital.

On constate que cet aménagement est déjà à l'étude. De grandes surfaces, parmi les plus utiles aux loisirs, ont déjà été mises de côté comme parcs. On doit espérer qu'on prendra les moyens nécessaires pour assurer une utilisation intelligente et une conservation des endroits pour les loisirs dans d'autres sites le long de la côte. Si on en prend les moyens, l'aire récréative Cornwall-Iroquois cessera d'être l'apanage des résidents pour devenir un endroit de villégiature pour un nombre sans cesse croissant de citadins des centres Nord-Est de l'Amérique du Nord.

For this real life story—a kind of unexpected sequel to UBIQUE, UBIQUE—the* REVIEW *is indebted to Alberta's Provincial Planning Advisory Board and to Mr. H. N. Lash, its Director of Town and Rural Planning. The sections in Roman type are verbatim quotations from a PLANNING REPORT prepared by the Town and Rural Planning Branch at the request of the Council of the Town of Rimbey. So pertinent is the Rimbey Report to our effort to show the way to planning in the smaller as well as the larger communities throughout Canada that we asked Mr. Lash to permit us to summarize or abridge it and to use a few of its illustrations. Thousands of similar communities may recognize their own problems in the Rimbey Report and may welcome a chance to see the result of a general planning survey. Implementation, it is true, is even more important than the general plan. Perhaps, in some future issue of this magazine, RIMBEY REVISITED will be read with a great deal of interest. Meanwhile, our heartiest wishes to the Town of Rimbey for a successful period of readjustment and growth!*

RIMBEY, ALBERTA: A SMALL TOWN PLANS

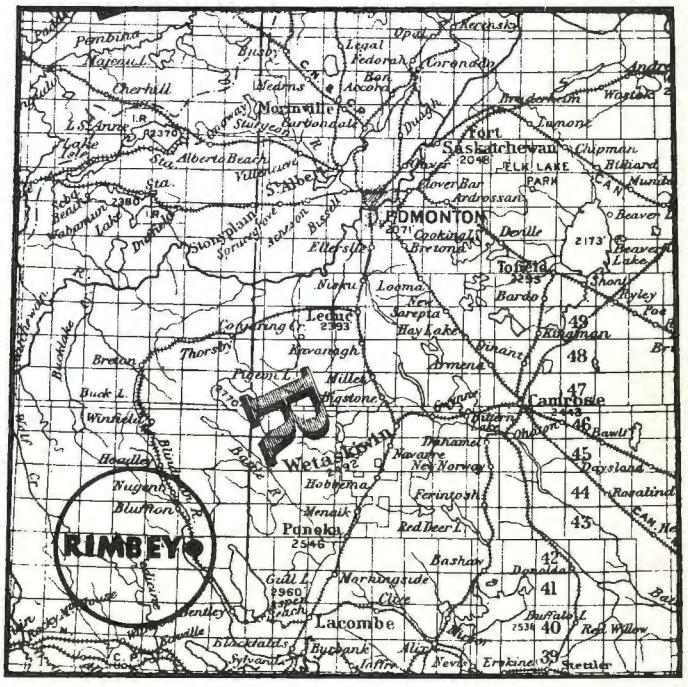
To the authors of the Planning Report for Rimbey, we express our regret for such distortions as may appear in our own explanations and summaries printed herein in italics. We are sorry that space does not permit the reprinting of the entire report, including the many diagrams showing, for example, present and proposed land use, zoning, classes of dwellings, sewers and serviceable areas, water distribution and street improvements.

HOW RIMBEY GREW

RIMBEY dates back to the time when the Blindman Valley was first settled. There was no railway through the valley until some time after settlement began, and Rimbey grew as a crossroads hamlet, a distinctly local centre serving a small farming community and having relatively poor access to larger centres and markets for local production. It has remained primarily a market town and its growth has been directly related to farming development in the area it served.

Rimbey has continued to grow despite disorderly development, but it has been a more costly and less convenient and less pleasant place to live than it might have been. A compact service area would be cheaper to service and more convenient for shoppers than the scattering of commercial uses which actually exists in Rimbey. The mixture of houses and shacks in most residential areas not only is unsightly but it discourages good construction and keeps residential assessment low.

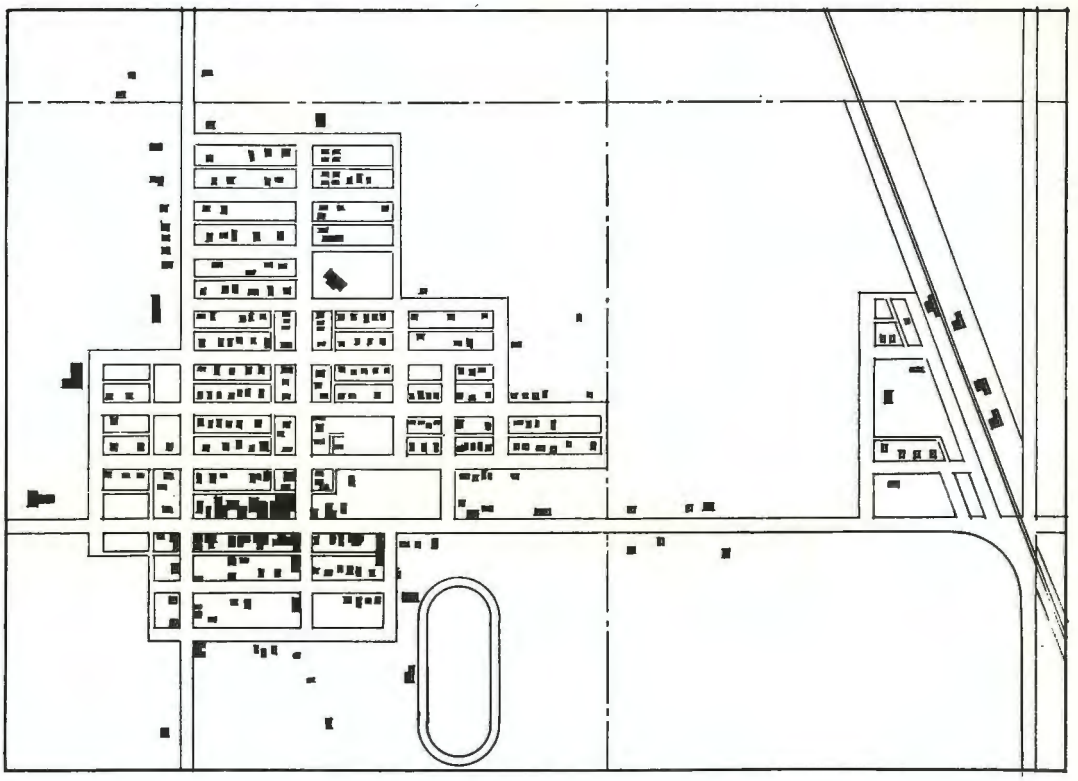
When the Leduc-Lacombe branch of the C.P.R. was built through the valley, it followed low grades and passed about a mile east of Rimbey. Land was subdivided on the east side of the railway station in the confident expectation that the village would gravitate toward the railway with its grain elevators and station facilities. However . . . only a few buildings were built in the so-called "new town".



*UBIQUE, UBIQUE—*A Canadian Tale* by George S. Mooney. COMMUNITY PLANNING REVIEW, Volume IV, 1954.

The Distribution of Buildings

From the Planning Report



After 1941 rural population began to decline as the effect of mechanization of farming began to be felt. Excess rural labor moved to urban centres and although most of the people migrating from the Rimbey district probably went to the large cities, a part of this rural-urban shift accounted for the 50% increase which occurred in Rimbey's population from 1941 to 1946.

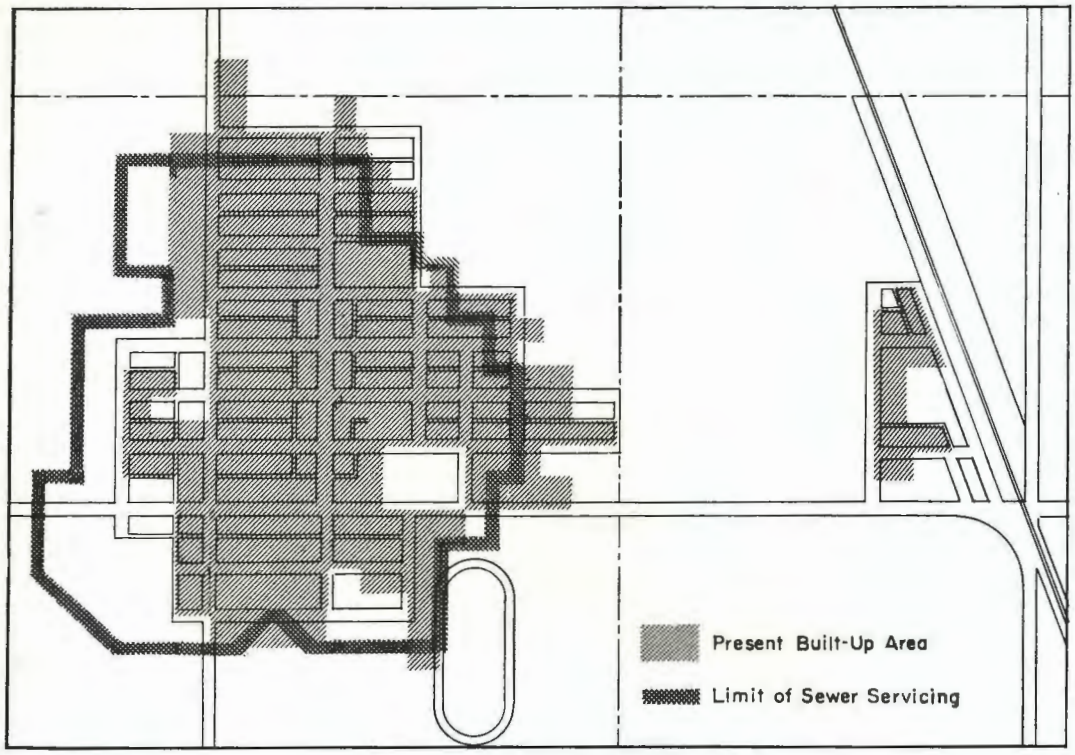
A well-established community might experience such growth without disorder, but in Rimbey, a small village with little urban character, the prevailing confusion of land uses was simply extended in scale. Such a result was probably encouraged by the strong spirit of individualism among the local inhabitants, a normal feature of life in a frontier region.

RIMBEY'S PRESENT STATE

Although Rimbey has reached a population of nearly 1000 people and is incorporated as a town, it still exhibits the mixture of land uses characteristic of hamlets or small villages. Thus, the land use map of Rimbey reveals scattered residential development interspersed with commercial uses. Moreover, there are marked variations in size and quality of houses within such small areas as blocks. In the area which is mainly in commercial uses, not only are there residential uses but there are side by side low density commercial uses which occupy large open properties and high density uses which utilize the whole width of narrow lots. . . . The commercial area is also characterized by gaps and a variety of building setbacks.

While there is vacant land scattered throughout the built-up area of Rimbey, even in the central part of town, it is mostly land which is available for residential or commercial development. Aside from the school, hospital and fair grounds, which are located on the edges of town, there is little public open space or park and none that has been specifically set aside and developed as such. As things stand now, the amount of open space in the town diminishes as the town grows and requires more park and open space.

The present street system makes little distinction, in regard to width or construction, between main travelled streets and other streets. This is partly inherent in the established grid pattern of subdivision which makes every street a through street. An attempt was made to foster the development of Main Street as the chief commercial street by making it one hundred feet wide and facing the lots at the ends of blocks onto it. However, the main commercial development occurred along Jasper Avenue which is part of a section road and provides farm traffic with easy access to the commercial facilities. . . . Extension of the town to accommodate new population has occurred by a series of small subdivisions made from time to time as the need appeared. There has been no large scale subdivision carefully planned by the town far in advance of immediate needs.



Relationship of Serviced to Built-up Areas

From the Planning Report

FACTORS AFFECTING RIMBEY'S FUTURE GROWTH

After reviewing the progress of farming, lumbering and gas and oil exploration, and appraising each of these factors for their effect on Rimbey's growth, the Planning Report estimates that the population will reach 1150 to 1300 in five years' time and that, in ten years (by 1964) it will reach 1300 to 1600.

FUTURE RESIDENTIAL REQUIREMENTS

The survey then goes on to estimate how much housing space will be needed and where it should be located.

In a town as large as Rimbey nearly all the demand for residential land will be for lots which are or can be serviced by sewers. There will always be some people who do not want or cannot afford serviced lots, but these are not likely to constitute a greater proportion of the total than at present, i.e., about 10%. Assuming the maximum probable growth, it is estimated that the additional population to be accommodated on serviceable land will be about 345 in five years' time and about 270 in the following five years.

At the present time, there are 4.5 people per dwelling in Rimbey. . . . On the basis of 4.5 per service connection, some 135 people can be accommodated with serviceable residential land without any additions to the present sewer system.

The probable high population forecast for 1964 indicates an increase of 685 people over 1954. Allowing 10% of this for people who will not require serviceable land, there remain some 615 who will.

With the aid of a diagram too large for use here, the Report shows that there is land where minor service connections could be made to accommodate about 370 people in addition to the 135 who can be served by the present sewer system. But to bring about all such minor extensions, it would be necessary to secure agreement of a considerable number of owners. The Report advises that the Town's program should be flexible enough to allow alternative areas for residential development.

Several possible areas are then examined with a view to determining which one can be serviced economically and is located pleasantly as well as conveniently in relation to present developed areas. An area is selected and a plan of a proposed subdivision in that area is presented in the Report.

The subdivision plan as shown is much more extensive than would be necessary during the next ten years, but it is designed so that it is possible to develop it in stages according to the predetermined plan and only the portion which seems likely to be required need be opened up during the forecast period. Rimbey is not going to stop growing after 1964 so that more residential space will be needed after that date. This space could be provided by further development of the west end area according to an overall plan such as the one illustrated (page 35).

It is proposed that the school grounds be developed in conjunction with this west end scheme so that the school may function as a community centre. Thus the diagram shows part of the school grounds as public park and part as public playground.

FUTURE LAND USE

With the aid of diagrams, the Report then explains the significant changes to be made in the land use pattern. Residential land will come to occupy the largest part of the town area: about 37% instead of 32% due to the reduction of area in streets and lanes.

With better subdivision design, it is possible to have a smaller amount of land in streets and lanes than is achieved by the usual grid system and to make purely residential streets narrower than through traffic streets.

The Report proposes that several park areas be developed, increasing the land in public use from 12% to 20% of the town area.

As for commercial and industrial areas, these would expand in proportion to the expansion of the town area. The Report suggests that this is a generous estimate of commercial land needs, since such needs do not increase proportionately to population growth. Much of the likely increase in business in Rimbey will comprise an increase in the volume of trade done by existing establishments.

It is proposed that the central business area should gradually become built up entirely in high density commercial uses, i.e. retail shops, restaurants, etc. which use the entire frontage and are serviced from a lane. With driveways removed and with the full extent of the commercial frontage built up, the central area will be much improved in appearance and in convenience to the shopper and will be more economically serviced. Moreover there will be some additional parking area, since uninterrupted curb space will become available along the whole length of the street.

SPACE FOR INDUSTRY

The Report concludes that no great amount of industrial space will be required during the forecast period. The main need will be for equipment and storage yards for gas and oil servicing firms. Instead of being within the central commercial area, this development, it is proposed, should occur in an area adjacent to the eastern highway approach.

TREATMENT OF HIGHWAYS

A part of one highway, it is proposed, should be relocated. Attention is then given to a possible future extension of a new route from Bentley northward which would pass through the "new town" development.

Should this occur, it is proposed that this part of town be replotted so that there would be a strip of commercial property facing onto the highway. This should be zoned in a special commercial district to permit only uses which derive trade primarily from highway traffic, e.g. service stations, and to ensure that such uses are properly set back and have proper access to the highway. A more specific policy can be set out when the need arises.

The purpose of these measures would be to maintain an unrestricted flow of traffic along the highway. This purpose would be defeated if residential and commercial development of all sorts were permitted adjacent to the possible highway route or if the town extended some of its east-west streets down to the highway. The latter course would be undesirable not only because it would create new highway entrances which hinder traffic flow but also because the streets would open up a large area of unserviceable land which would be better left undeveloped.

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES

There is little town-owned vacant land in Rimbey, so that much of the effort of bringing about more orderly growth will have to consist of regulating private, individual development. The major administrative measure by which the proposed land use pattern may be achieved is the zoning and building by-law. The town has already undertaken to enact a by-law, and it should be in effect by the time this report is published.

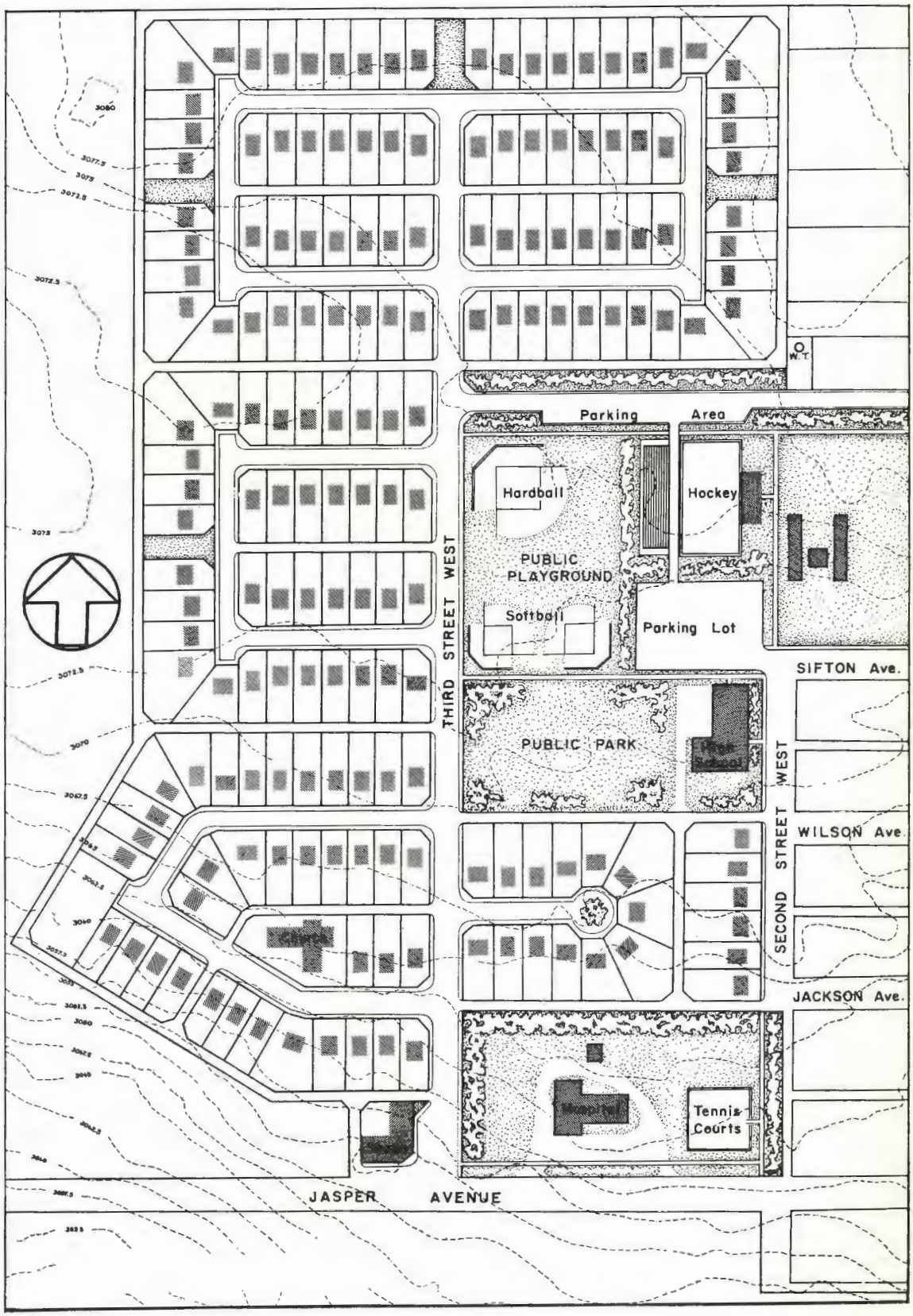
Maps are used to show the proposed zoning required to foster the gradual evolution of the land use plan. One of the problems, of course, is to delimit the residential districts. First, as a basis for this, a detailed survey is made of existing dwellings. Then, with this information known, four classes of districts are proposed as a basis for zoning. It is expected that, as a result of establishing a standard of housing for each zone, better houses will be constructed, since there will be less danger of high quality dwellings becoming surrounded by low quality buildings.

THE FRINGE AREA

To achieve the orderly development proposed, the Report advises that the Town should be able to regulate all urban development in and adjacent to the present town area. The present built-up fringe should be annexed and the proposed new zoning and building by-laws extended.

Once the town contains all the present urban growth, annexation should be considered on a new basis. It should be regarded as a means of ensuring future control of urban land use by adding to the town particular areas of agricultural land in anticipation of planned urban development. The application of this concept requires: first, that the town undertake to annex that portion of the west end residential scheme which lies outside the town boundaries, and second, that no new fringe development be allowed to occur outside the new town limits. The prevention of further fringe growth will require the cooperation of the County of Ponoka. . . .

The provision and maintenance of playground facilities could be undertaken by the town itself, but it is more common for a town to encourage a local service club to undertake the work as a continuing project. . . . The playgrounds should be developed primarily for younger children. There probably should be such equipment as swings, a slide and a sandpit, and perhaps a softball



PROPOSED WEST END SUBDIVISION

diamond, but much of the area can simply be left as open space for playing games.

As shown in the plan for a west-end subdivision, the school grounds might be developed in conjunction with a new residential area to form a community centre including playground and park space. . . . It is also suggested that a portion of the school grounds be developed as a formal park area. A well-planned park would enhance the appearance of the high school and provide a park area in the west part of town. The project could be begun at any time.

CAPITAL EXPENDITURES

The principle is laid down that a planning program must not be confined to purely regulatory measures.

If planning is to be effective, it must become a normal function of the local government, and the positive actions of the town itself must be carried out within the framework of the general plan. One of the most important measures which the town could undertake is the integration of all public works into a long-range program designed to assist the orderly development of the town.

The Report then proceeds to explain in some detail how it arrives at a ten-year capital expenditure program for extension of sewer and water systems, surface drainage, sidewalk construction and street improvements. It was necessary to make an estimate of the town's future financial resources. The relationship of population and net assessment in past years was studied with a view to relating future net assessment to the expected population growth. It was felt that it would be conservative to assume, for the next ten years, a constant per capita net assessment of $800 as a working estimate. This amount was used in calculating the future assessment and borrowing power of the town, and the result was shown in a table. As a further check to determine what degree of annual capital expenditure might be generally acceptable to ratepayers, estimates were compared with the expenditures of towns of similar size, net assessment and location near the fringe of settlement. The Report of course warns that the suggested schedules of capital expenditure are subject to frequent review and adjustment as more precise information becomes available. Emphasis is placed upon the method of planning rather than the precise present figures.

The program of improvements for sewers, water, sidewalks, drainage and street improvements is set forth graphically and explained clearly in the text.

The Report concludes with the following statement.

If the proposals are to be effective, they must be actually carried out during the ten-year planning period. To assist the town in this, a capital expenditures program has been prepared taking into account the town's servicing needs, its financial resources and the scheduling of the various expenditures. This program and the other proposals in the Report should serve as a guide to the town council in the day-to-day decisions which affect the development of Rimbey.

(In a table not reproduced here, the Planning Report also summarizes estimates of a Capital Expenditure Program for the years 1955-64.)

ESTIMATES OF FUTURE POPULATION AND FINANCIAL RESOURCES

YEAR	PROBABLE POPULATION		TOTAL NET ASSESSMENT		TOTAL BORROWING POWER		RESIDUAL BORROWING POWER	
	LOW	HIGH	POPULATION BASIS LOW	POPULATION BASIS HIGH	POPULATION BASIS LOW	POPULATION BASIS HIGH	POPULATION BASIS LOW	POPULATION BASIS HIGH
1955	955	975	$ 764,000	$ 780,000	$152,800	$156,000	$ 55,862	$ 59,062
1956	1000	1050	800,000	840,000	160,000	168,000	71,105	79,105
1957	1050	1125	840,000	900,000	168,000	180,000	87,338	99,338
1958	1100	1210	880,000	968,000	176,000	193,600	103,766	120,366
1959	1150	1300	920,000	1,040,000	184,000	208,000	120,494	144,494
1960	1180	1350	944,000	1,080,000	188,800	216,000	134,028	161,228
1961	1215	1415	972,000	1,132,000	194,400	226,400	185,357	217,357
1962	1240	1470	992,000	1,176,000	198,400	235,200	189,141	225,941
1963	1275	1535	1,020,000	1,228,000	204,000	245,600	194,521	236,121
1964	1300	1600	1,040,000	1,280,000	208,000	256,000	198,294	246,294

REVIEWS

THE CAPITAL REGION TAKES STOCK*

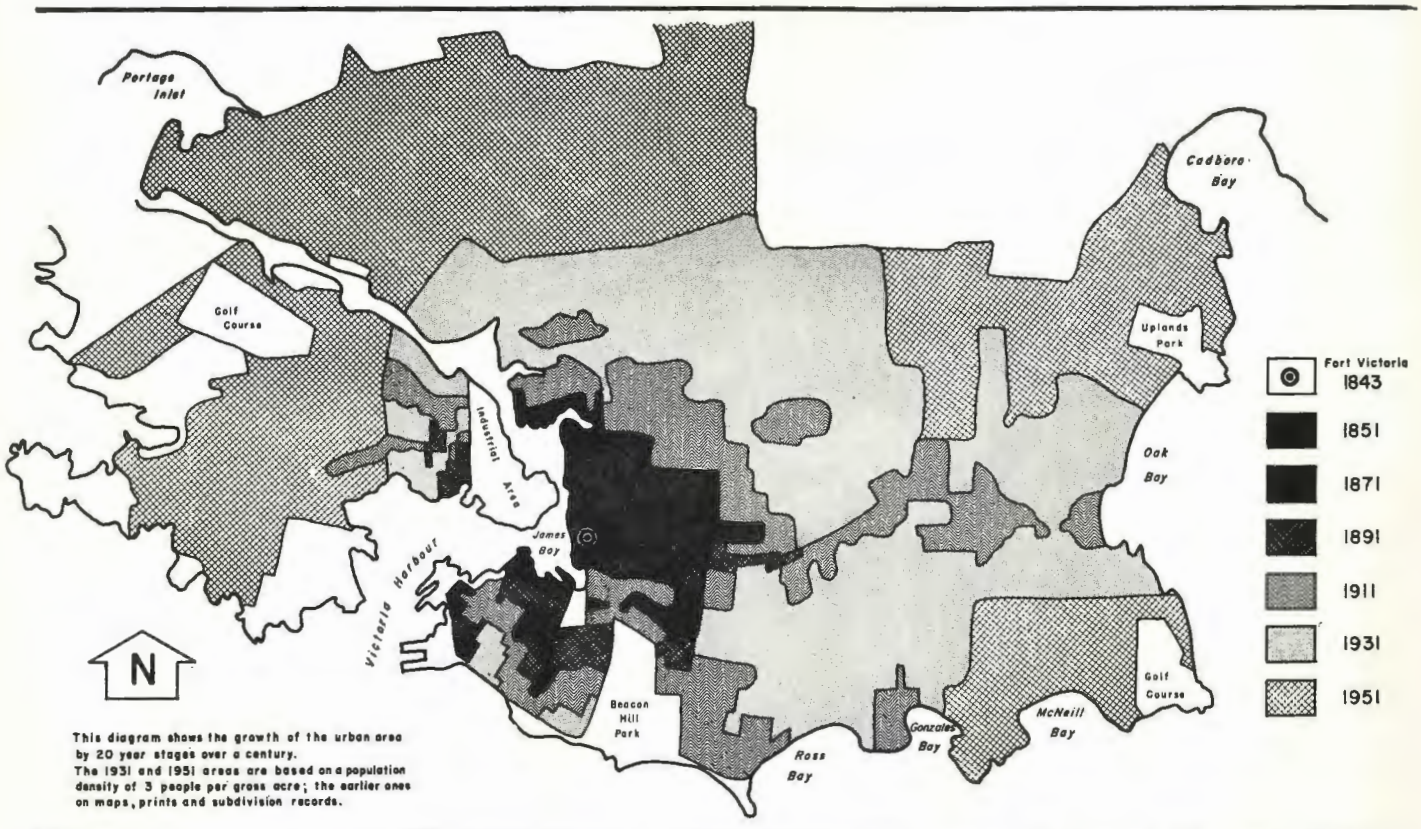
PLANNING reports are not written primarily for planners. They are written mainly for lay citizens including the elected representatives who bear the final responsibility for decision. It is good that this is so; for, by the art of report-writing, the planner is serving two inseparable purposes: the achievement of technically sound action and the perfection of the democratic process.

This basic report on British Columbia's capital region is a fine example of the planner's art of inquiry and exposition. It is hard for a reviewer to select from a work so well packed with substance. One can only recommend it directly, and as a whole, to every citizen of the region to read for his enlightenment and pleasure.

* Capital Region Planning Board of B.C. Victoria, October 1954.

According to the author, Mr. J. W. Wilson, the report is "essentially the kind of general examination which, in medicine, precedes more detailed diagnosis and prescription". Mr. Wilson, who is normally the Executive Director of the Lower Mainland Regional Planning Board, was engaged as Consultant for this survey by the Capital Regional Planning Board. The Report has now been sent by the Board to the Minister of Municipal Affairs and to all of the mayors, reeves and members of councils in the municipalities of the Capital Region. The Board's own next step, according to its Chairman, Mr. F. W. Nicolls, M.R.A.I.C., is to consider the recommendations in detail and to prepare further studies. "An analysis of these surveys will lead to the determination of the overall land requirements within the region for such varied uses as agriculture, residences, parks, schools,

GREATER VICTORIA: A CENTURY OF GROWTH



The Capital Region Planning Board

business, industry, government, major thoroughfares, parking and public services." To achieve this objective, the Board recently appointed Mr. Brahm Wiesman as Planning Director. Mr. Wiesman is now building a technical staff to prepare plans for and to advise on the physical development of the region.

* * *

The Capital Region Takes Stock presents the usual basic facts, with excellent maps and diagrams, about the people and their employment, industries, agriculture, forests, minerals, electric power, water supply, road, rail and air traffic, harbour facilities and municipal administration. Space here does not permit details regarding these subjects. So it seems best to direct attention to what the report refers to as "The One Great Problem"—that of controlling residential development. Beginning with the fact that one part of Greater Victoria's "fringe" contains about 1200 lots of less than half an acre—that is, mainly residential lots—the report continues as follows:

"The total area of the lots plus access roads is only 250 acres. Nevertheless *they have been scattered wantonly over about 2500 acres—ten times their own area.* At the same time, *only one quarter of them are occupied,* most of the rest lying idle waiting for buyers. What are the consequences of this kind of development?"

"(1) The length of road, ditch and water main which the municipality has to maintain is much greater than it need be.

(2) Sanitation problems may arise and sewers may become necessary before there are enough people to pay for them.

(3) Schools have to serve large areas, so that pupils have to walk long distances or be transported to school. In the same way, only small, inadequate and non-competitive stores can be supported within reasonable distance for the housewife.

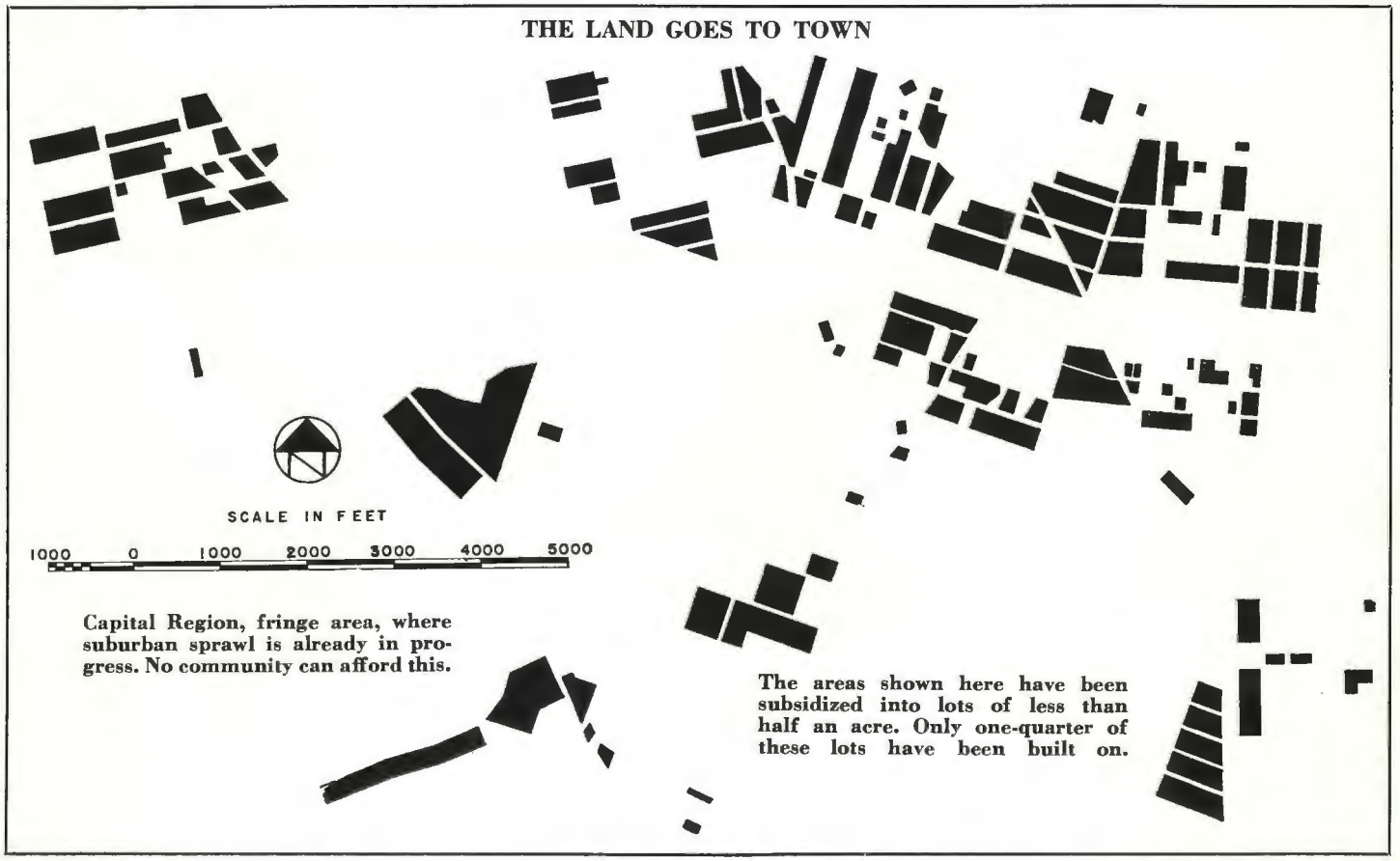
(4) The area as a whole will not be able to support a convenient and frequent bus service until an economic density has been reached.

(5) Since development is spotty and unpredictable, both in location and in quality, building loans will be difficult to obtain.

(6) Haphazard development is considered detrimental by the underwriters of municipal bonds and the municipality will probably have to pay higher interest rates on its borrowings.

(7) It inflates land values and tax valuations over a whole area and raises farmers' and smallholders' costs unnecessarily.

(8) Its initial promise of rural conditions and low taxes is temporary only. Rural becomes suburban


THE LAND GOES TO TOWN
SCALE IN FEET
1000 0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000
Capital Region, fringe area, where suburban sprawl is already in progress. No community can afford this.
The areas shown here have been subsidized into lots of less than half an acre. Only one-quarter of these lots have been built on.

Capital Region Planning Board

and then urban as the residential wave rolls on. Wells give way to water mains, septic tanks to sewers, rural taxes to suburban taxes, and the town again catches up with its fugitives.

(9) It destroys the rural character of large areas. This is specially serious in the Capital Region with its limited area. *If the present indiscriminate pattern continues, the whole of the Region, excluding only mountainous and rock outcrop areas, will be covered by this suburban rash in twenty years.* With its natural beauty spoiled, the Region would have little recreational value, and with land values inflated, agriculture would be a hazardous business."

"This is the case against urban sprawl. It is short sighted, socially inadequate and costly to the residents individually and to the municipality as a whole. It is the way to bankruptcy or the suburban slum. In any situation it is foolish and lamentable; in the Capital Region it would be disastrous. The Region cannot afford a binge on the fringe. There just isn't enough fringe."

"This is *not* an argument against residential expansion, which is inevitable, or against true rural living—that is, living on a piece of land which is big enough to provide a true rural atmosphere and to make urban services unnecessary—which has its place. It *is* an argument for sanity in the use of limited land resources and for the development of satisfactory communities as a matter of municipal policy—true communities with social and economic advantages. It is a plea for collective self-regulation as against anarchy in the development of the Region."

"The main responsibility for shaping future communities will inevitably fall on Saanich, Central Saanich, Sidney, and the unorganized areas to the north and west. It will necessitate (a) zoning plans and regulations, scientifically prepared and strictly administered, which will guide development into the most suitable and economic areas, (b) planning of public works, services and schools in accordance with these plans so that when new areas are opened up they will be well and economically serviced."

"The necessity for planning and control is all the greater in these areas because the chances of obtaining new industries to share the tax load do not seem very bright, so that residential and commercial properties will have to carry practically the whole burden."

Our readers everywhere will recognize the disease and will welcome Mr. Wilson's eloquent and concise analysis.

* * *

Among the recommendations of the report is a proposal that the limits of the Capital Region should be extended by law to comprise "a logical planning area", which would include in addition to the present area of Victoria and suburbs, the whole of the Saanich peninsula and the area south of the boundary of the Esquimalt and Nanaimo Land Grant District.

As to the framework of regional government, the Report concludes that the need for an overall regional authority has not yet arisen in an acute form, but it warns that this problem may some day have to be faced.

There is a recommendation that the Planning Board should collaborate with the Victoria Chamber of Commerce on a more selective industrial promotion program for the Region.

Parks and beach areas are urged in both the analysis and the recommendations.

Emphasis is placed at the close of the report on the Regional Planning Board and its functions. Apart from its regional and metropolitan planning duties, the Planning Board is advised to assist town planning commissions to prepare, maintain and administer their own development plans and to serve in as wide as possible a way as a centre of information, assistance and coordination for the people and municipalities of the Capital Region.

E. B.

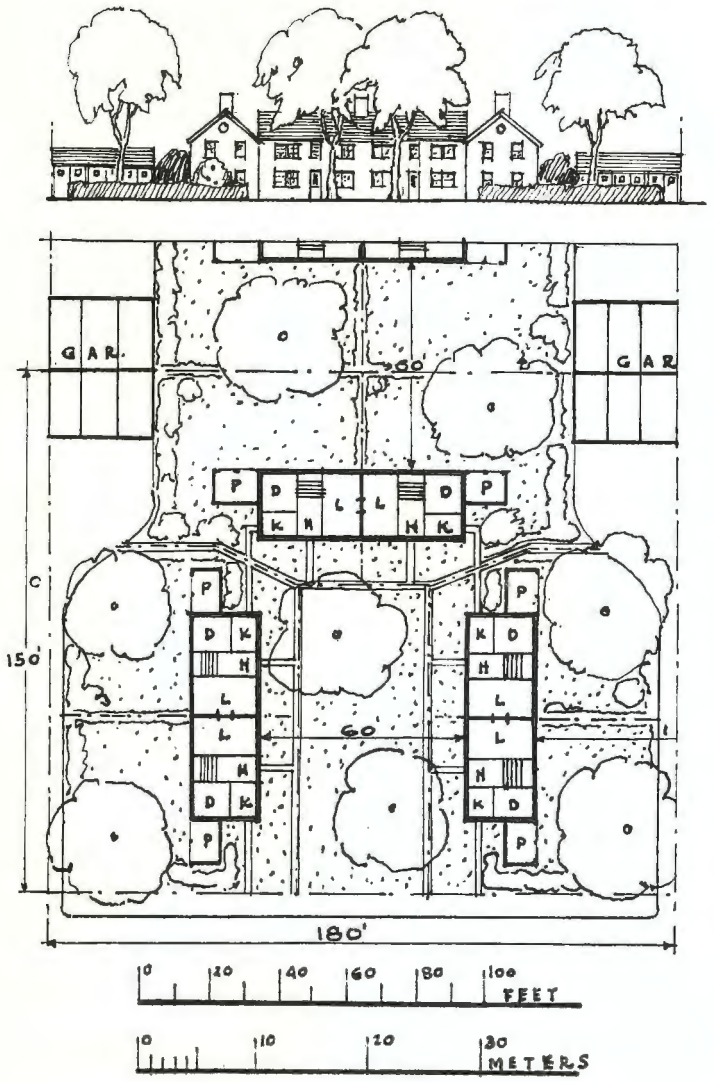
HOUSING DESIGNS*

by E. H. Klaber

THIS book, in the words of the author, is "for those who are concerned with the physical design of housing—architects, developers, lenders and students". It attempts "to express and illustrate the principles of housing design which should be common knowledge, which in fact are indispensable tools of the craft". This it attempts in order "to prepare designers to cope with the complex problems of housing design with awareness of the ways and needs of human living, to prepare men and women who have inquisitive minds and who develop their own methods of attack".

Mr. Klaber has had nine years of United States Government service in housing and has examined approximately 2000 proposals for housing projects. With this background of experience and with the quantity of information available to him, he has actually set himself a task that he describes by quoting George Washington: ". . . let us raise a standard to which the wise and honest

* Reinhold Publishing Corporation, New York, 1954. 247 pages. $8.50.



This is one of two ways suggested by Mr. Klaber for using an area of 180 by 150 feet for a group of six semi-detached houses of identical size. The other way, "sliver subdivision", is based upon long narrow lots with a row of houses in the front, each with a long garden.

Each unit in this "group plan" has a well-shaped garden immediately accessible from its porch. There is not much difference, the author states, in the cost of branch utilities; and the cost of driveways is less. This arrangement is also more convenient for deliveries. The occupants, however, "must be sufficiently good neighbours to arrange for the common care of the lawns in the entrance courts". Sidewalk lengths are somewhat greater in this plan.

Even if the cost of this plan should be slightly higher than the conventional one, Mr. Klaber suggests, "we should ask ourselves whether the environment created is not worth more than the difference".

can repair". In other words, Mr. Klaber intends in this book to describe the true needs of the families that he has seen housed according to minimal standards that were too often "a compendium of the worst that a building code, a governmental or a private lending agency is willing to permit".

So that the broad and somewhat vague first aim of the book, quoted earlier, introduces us actually to a detailed technology of planning and not, as one could have expected, to a broad scheme for the creation of a human environment–biological, social and economic. Indeed the author has little patience with the abstract and the theoretical; the housing designs of LeCorbusier he treats with contempt.

The author has seen so many ordinary housing projects of poor design that he makes an appeal for thoughtfulness in the detailed planning of all the drab details of garbage collection, bed-making, pram storage, etc. He illustrates his text with many good as well as bad examples of such details.

Any one who has studied Canadian rental housing feels sympathy with Mr. Klaber and welcomes such an intensely practical book. This is the first detailed critical survey of the quality of the great mass of new housing built under U.S. F.H.A. care.

Among the chapters of particular interest to Canadian designers are those on site-planning methods, on the difficulties of planning with deep narrow lots of subdivision, and on planning the many varieties of walk-up flats similar to those in the majority of Canadian rental housing projects, in the Montreal area at least.

Canadian housing legislators, and lenders, would do well to consider the opinions of an experienced administrator like Mr. Klaber, particularly on the question of space between buildings according to orientation and to heights of buildings.

In particular, the chapters on orientation and the notes on planning for natural ventilation give a good analysis of the best features of many plans, and describe much useful information.

Briefly, this book contains a valuable summary of the complicated physical factors that enter into the making of buildings of multiple housing for our North American habits; it recommends many improvements in terms of plan and in terms of legislation such as are urgently needed in the States and even more urgently needed here. The plans chosen for illustrations show in my opinion a higher quality than is found among the average plans for Canadian rental housing.

This book is illustrated in a purposeful way, but not very beautifully. The author's style is gruff, honest, folksy, and often irritating.

Montreal. GUY DESBARATS

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